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ABSTRACT

Eight selected papers from a conference on the teaching of foreign languages cover three main topics: learner-centered priorities; learner-directed strategies; and planning strategies. After an introduction by Lorraine A. Strasheim on learners and learning outcomes, the papers and authors are as follows: "The Developing Child: What Every FLES Teacher Needs to Know" (David B. Heining-Boynton); "Toward a More Thorough Understanding of Foreign Language Anxiety" (Christine M. Campbell and Jose A. Ortiz); "Prioritizing Student Learning: A Guide for Teachers" (Martha Nyikos); "Involve Me and I'll Learn: Active Participation Strategies for Foreign Language Classes" (Margaret Jackson and Sharon Beaver); "Partner Work and Small-Group Work for Cooperative and Communicative Learning" (Jennifer L. Knerr and Charles J. James); "Are They Learning What We're Teaching? Assessing Language Skills in the Classroom" (Walter H. Bartz); "Authentic Videos in the Foreign Language Classroom" (John I. Liontas); and "Implementing a Less Commonly Taught Language Program: A Longitudinal Perspective" (Audrey L. Heining-Boynton and Timothy L. Hart). Each paper concludes with a reference list. (LB)

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Report of Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

Focus on the Foreign Language Learner:

Priorities and Strategies

Edited by
Lorraine A. Strasheim

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David B. Heining-Boynton
Christine M. Campbell
José A. Ortiz
Martha Nyikos
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CENTRAL STATES

CONFERENCE ON THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

THE FRIENDLY CONFERENCE!

Focus on the Foreign Language Learner: Priorities and Strategies

Selected Papers from the 1991 Central States Conference

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Preface

In our time in the history of the world, it is more and more evident that world cooperation can only be accomplished when people actually take the time to learn to communicate with each other and to understand one another's cultures. The goals of our profession take on greater significance every day. Each time we gather we realize the importance of our role in today's world society and that we *can* make a difference by modeling what we believe.

The 1991 Central States Conference, the "Friendly Conference," had as the theme of its twenty-third meeting in conjunction with the Indiana Foreign Language Teachers Association, "Our National Priorities: Vehicles for Positive Change." The subthemes evolved from the ACTFL priorities in the 28 workshops and 142 sessions included teacher education, advocacy, textbooks and materials, curriculum and articulation, travel and study abroad, technology, teaching advanced levels, research, the less commonly taught languages, and testing.

The true driving force of every Central States Conference is always those dedicated teachers who come together from over 30 states to participate, to interact, and to network. The 1990s are exciting times to be a foreign language teacher.

Toni Theisen
1991 Program Chair

Contents

Introduction Lorraine A. Strasheim ix

Section I: Learner-Centered Priorities

1. **The Developing Child: What Every FLES Teacher Needs to Know** 3
   David B. Heining-Boynton

2. **Toward a More Thorough Understanding of Foreign Language Anxiety** 12
   Christine M. Campbell and José A. Ortiz

3. **Prioritizing Student Learning: A Guide for Teachers** 25
   Martha Nyikos

Section II: Learner-Directed Strategies

4. **Involve Me and I'll Learn: Active Participation Strategies for Foreign Language Classes** 43
   Margaret Jackson and Sharon Beaver

5. **Partner Work and Small-Group Work for Cooperative and Communicative Learning** 54
   Jennifer L. Knerr and Charles J. James

6. **Are They Learning What We're Teaching? Assessing Language Skills in the Classroom** 69
   Walter H. Bartz

Section III: Planning Strategies

7. **Authentic Videos in the Foreign Language Classroom** 85
John I. Liontas

8. **Implementing a Less Commonly Taught Language Program: A Longitudinal Perspective** 100
Audrey L. Heining-Boynton and Timothy L. Hart

Introduction: Learners and Learning Outcomes

Lorraine A. Strasheim
Indiana University

Student surveys have stressed the speaking skill from the 1930s—two decades before the profession's goals were to reflect any such emphasis—through the late 1970s—almost two decades after the "Audiolingual Revolution" of the late 1950s and early 1960s had committed the profession to skills development and culture goals. (See Grittner 1990.) Students have been saying for most of this century, in fact, that they really *do* want to learn to communicate with the people whose languages they are studying "in their own languages and cultural contexts" (President's Commission 1979: 28).

The challenge of the 1980s and 1990s is to "translate" these "student perceptions of what foreign languages instruction is all about" into learning outcomes (Grittner 1990: 40). This is not a new challenge, however; it has existed since the middle of this century. It was the reason eclecticism with its dual emphases on motivation and student retention replaced monolithic teaching methodologies. Eclecticism had become "the most widespread approach" by the late 1970s (Westphal 1978: 141), but it has not to date been all that successful in "delivering" communicative and cultural goals as learning outcomes.

Eclecticism as it has been implemented has exposed a problem that may always have been inherent in the implementation of teaching methods or approaches: the co-existence of explicit and implicit goals, the former published in course syllabi and curriculum guides, the latter revealed only through the process of instruction. The explicit goals, focused on *learning to use* the language, reflect student expectations; the

implicit goals focused on *learning about* the language, the learning outcomes students have been attaining.

The professional resolution that proficiency is the desired outcome of instruction complicated the problem, adding a profusion of new emphases to be incorporated into eclectic teaching styles. Any one of the new emphases was often open to broad interpretation, and sometimes two seemed to contradict one another. Teachers were simultaneously urged, for example, to stress accuracy but to deemphasize discrete-item learning and testing; and to use authentic materials but concentrate on personalization. The tension between coexisting explicit and implicit goals has continued well into the 1980s, with resultant student frustration and misperceptions (Horwitz 1988).

What is needed in the 1990s is "informed eclecticism" (Richards and Rodgers 1986: 158) in which teaching strategies and learning activities are selected for their "fit" with the course goals cited. But before teachers can select strategies and activities on this basis, they need more concrete and realistic course goals. The goals generally stated in the recent past tended to promise too much too fast and to lead to unrealistic student expectations.

It may well be time to consider the "language proficiency achievement goals" for each level of instruction proposed by the President's Commission (1979: 42), for the ACTFL *Proficiency Guidelines* (ACTFL 1986) are not linked to the levels in which teachers deliver foreign language instruction.

The linkage to levels is extremely critical due to the heavy concentration of the student population in the early levels. Extrapolation from the 1985 national enrollments for grades 9–12 reported by levels showed 48 percent of the students in French, German, and Spanish in level one, 82 percent in levels one and two, 11 percent in level three, and 7 percent in levels four through six (Dandonoli 1987). There is no real reason to suppose that the patterns in grades 9–12—not reported by levels—differ greatly. And given the fact that most of the students in grades 7–8, at this point in time, are probably enrolled in level one and that all FLES pupils are considered to be in level one, there is an enormous "population bulge" of rank beginners to whom proficiency-oriented instruction must be realistically tailored if they are to be motivated to continue into more extended sequences.

But when teachers do set about defining "language proficiency achievements goals," they will find that the goals for level-one FLES differ from those of level one in the middle or junior high school, that both of these are different from those in the high school, and all three differ from the goals for the first year in a college or university. Articulation among the levels of schooling in a school district or corporation continues to be problematic. In the process of teachers defining goals that can be tested and evaluated, more realistic approaches to articulation will emerge. We may even learn that we need to consider "tracking" our students according to the level of schooling at which they initiate their studies.

If the 1990s are to evolve goal-driven instruction, as much for the purpose of providing effective instruction as to the end of developing proficiency-oriented instruction, that instruction has to become "learner friendly" in the ways that past instruction has been "language friendly." And so we must focus on the learner—on the development of our very young learners and on the cognitive, affective, and communicative responses of our older ones. We need to find out what kinds of instruction will serve the greatest number of students at any given level of schooling, which is not at all to say that there will be "one true way" or "the" method.

The Central States Conference focus on the learner consists of three sections: learner-centered priorities, learner-centered strategies, and planning strategies.

In the section on learner-centered priorities, David B. Heining-Boynton speaks for the youngest of our learners in "The Developing Child: What Every FLES Teacher Needs to Know," providing a worthwhile review for the trained FLES teacher, some vital basic information for the "retooled" secondary teacher, and some insights into realistic expectations for the middle or junior high school teacher teaching this age group as they continue in the sequence. Turning toward the older learner, Christine M. Campbell and José A. Ortiz move us "Toward a More Thorough Understanding of Foreign Language Anxiety," suggesting some ways of addressing these problems both directly and via instruction. Martha Nyikos then addresses older learners and their needs from a different perspective in "Prioritizing Student Learning: A Guide to Teachers," arguing that learning strategies should be an integral part of the instructional process.

In the section on learner-directed strategies, the emphasis is on "hands-on" ideas for that long succession of "Monday mornings" yet ahead. Margaret Jackson and Sharon Beaver apply a model developed by Kenneth Maas in "Involve Me and I'll Learn: Active Participation Strategies for Foreign Language Classes." Jennifer L. Knerr and Charles J. James then add another dimension in "Partner Work and Small-Group Work for Cooperative and Communicative Learning." Finally, asking "Are They Learning What We're Teaching?" Walter H. Bartz discusses the assessment of language skills in the classroom.

The third section of our focus concentrates upon the kinds of commitment and planning that must go into responding to learner needs. John I. Liontas stresses the considerations necessary in evolving strategies for dealing with "Authentic Videos in the Foreign Language Classroom." In "Implementing a Less Commonly Taught Language Program: A Longitudinal Perspective," Audrey L. Heining-Boynton and Timothy L. Hart clarify the kinds of planning, commitment, effort, and time required in establishing such a program, demands for which parents, school administrators, and even teachers are often not prepared.

If the profession can retain a focus on the learner long enough to evolve goal-driven, proficiency-oriented, and "learner-friendly" instruction, it just might be that by the year 2000 there will be no question in any student's mind but that she or he *is* learning too communicate with the people whose language is being studied "in their own language and cultural context" and enjoying the progress she or he is making. That kind of outcome, however, requires more than a transitory focus on the learner: it demands the highest priority possible well into the 1990s.

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Acknowledgments

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Section I

Learner-Centered Priorities

1
The Developing Child: What Every FLES Teacher Needs to Know

David B. Heining-Boynton
Meredith College, Raleigh, North Carolina

A basic course for most prospective teachers is one in child development. Yet the reality of the teacher education curriculum is that many teachers receive one or two weeks of child development as part of a course in educational psychology. Even when child psychology or child and adolescent classes are required or taken, new teachers soon forget many of the principles that have been hidden behind research, facts, names, and the pressure to learn more and more in their cognate area. Even many experienced teachers, moving between grade levels because of professional dictates or personal change, seem to be only minimally aware of the basic developmental needs of children and their impact on the classroom and learning environment. Added to this is the current problem in Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES) programs of finding teachers trained and certified expressly in the area of elementary foreign languages. Often FLES teachers are drawn from those originally trained for secondary instruction in the language or other fields. A few authors such as Bredekamp (1986), Kuykendall (1990), and Strupeck and Watson (1990) mention the need for developmentally appropriate educational practices or for teachers and administrators to pay attention to child development principles in the development and implementation of curriculum. Most writers and administrators appear, however, to give scant attention to reinforcing such approaches either in their publications or in inservice training.

This presentation is a part of the solution to the problem. More states are reinforcing the need for both traditionally and nontraditionally trained teachers to exhibit competencies in areas of child development theory and awareness. Borrowing from theory, research, and practical experiences, and authors such as Behler and Snowman (1986) and Bredekamp (1986), this article will examine characteristics of children in terms of general categories of development. FLES teachers will find that attention to these characteristics of development will assist them in planning and delivering materials and will become an integral part of their methodology. The paper will explore four general areas: (1) the physical domain, (2) the cognitive domain, (3) the social domain, and (4) the emotional domain. In order to best facilitate understanding the materials, the reader will also find that the developmental period has been divided into three stages: (1) preschool and kindergarten, (2) early primary (first through third grade), and (3) later primary (fourth through sixth grade). There are a number of psychological and educational justifications for such divisions. Please keep in mind, however, that there are individuals in each category who may be below or above any given ability level. The following groupings are meant as guides to ease understanding and discussion. Suggestions for methodology will be given to assist the teacher in material and lesson development, as well as enabling the educator to understand the child better as an individual.

The Preschool and Kindergarten Child

The Physical Domain

The first thing that FLES teachers will note about children in this age grouping is the activity level. Preschool and kindergarten children are active learners and the teachers will make use of this in planning their own learning activities. Please note, however, that while there is a high level of energy, these children may suddenly slow down or "crash," and are often unable to control their ups and downs. Therefore, planning will provide for calm, slow-paced instruction as well as movement and physical interaction activities.

Another aspect of the physical domain for the young child is that of muscle development and coordination. Here we find that many children are clumsy or have poor eye-hand coordination. This is in part because

large muscle development proceeds faster than fine muscle development. Visual acuity is often a problem, especially in terms of focusing on small items or print. Large manipulatives, big books, and enlarged graphics are important accessories to the classroom.

Young children have flexible bodies and they enjoy showing off, but there are limits to how much abuse these bodies can take. Children often create their own danger in attempting to prove their abilities or in the rush of their activity. Careful monitoring and training in classroom management skills are essential for the teacher. Maracas used as drumsticks on someone's head can be dangerous indeed.

The Cognitive Domain

This is definitely the time for language development. Children at this age are both skillful and playful with oral language and eager to learn. Most children like to talk and are relatively uninhibited, even in front of groups. Remember that they play with language and may use their own rules of structure and grammar despite your best efforts. Be prepared for numerous errors. At this age children may also generalize rules. Stick to simple communicative language. Give them just *a little* more than they know to push learning, but do not lose their comprehension. Like first language acquisition, they will learn best from hearing the correct structure, not from repeated individual corrections. Far too often new FLES teachers are overly concerned about proper pronunciation and grammar. Developmental approaches to language learning such as Krashen (1981) suggest that the young child will begin to monitor and self-correct their own language when presented with adequate models. Let them play with the language and allow numerous opportunities for review along with new learning. Encourage students by signs of appreciation and respect, by urging and setting limits, and above all, with praise.

These students are still in Piaget's (1959) preoperational stage, but moving toward the concrete operational stage of development. This means that they need concrete examples—pictures, objects, sounds. Use a wide variety of sensory examples, as students exhibit a wide range of learning styles. Direct interaction with materials is important.

The Social Domain

The young child tends to be very social. You will find that they are, in general, less inhibited socially than older children. Both males and females are willing to participate in activities like dancing. Most of them enjoy dramatic play and are willing to act out parts of simple stories or become involved in acting out cultural interactions. Make use of the materials and interests that they bring to the classroom. Make sure that you teach cultural similarities rather than overstating the differences. Concrete examples and physical involvement in aspects of the language that relate to their own experiences—food, shelter, clothing, schooling, family—are easier to understand and relate to. It is easy to use an integrated curriculum for this very reason, because it relates to other things that they are learning.

Note that friendship patterns change rapidly. If children are hesitant to work with or be next to another child, move them. Chances are that before next week the whole pattern of friendships will have changed. Even best friends and worst enemies change frequently at this age. Some preschool children prefer to "do their own thing" while seeming to be following along (parallel play). Monitor behavior. Be aware of quarrels: they may be frequent, but they are generally of short duration.

The Emotional Domain

Adults are very important people at this point. Because they enjoy learning, children will be excited about what you have to offer. It is easy to provide both positive and negative guidance, so be aware of what you are doing. They will often model their attitudes and behaviors upon the adults in the classroom. Your own attitudes toward cultural behaviors, people, and languages will have a strong effect on your classes. Do not let your own stereotyped attitudes about things (like eating eel or squid, or what is the only correct word for an object) influence their attempts to learn for themselves. Let them experience and judge for themselves. You may need to examine your own feelings and monitor how you express yourself. An open attitude on your part will help them become more willing to learn about and try different experiences. "My teacher said" is often heard on the playground, at home and around town!

Be careful how you correct children. At this age they are especially vulnerable to criticism, and their feelings are easily hurt. Wrong answers are still answers, and you can easily persuade a child that his or her responses are not worth much. Attempt to make use of responses to guide them toward more desirable outcomes. Criticism by an adult goes straight to the heart of young children and is seldom seen by them as helpful, growth-producing, character-building, and for their own good.

Because children express their emotions quite openly at this age, angry outbursts and temper displays may be common. And because adults are so important, jealousy may be a problem. See that *all* children are successful and get attention. Good classroom management and an ability to attend to individual differences are necessary skills. Be fair and equal with your time and attention.

The Early Primary Grades

The Physical Domain

Activity continues to be a key word with the first-, second-, and third-grade child. Unfortunately, most schools require them to be quiet and remain seated for long periods of time. This period might well be described as the period of the "fidgets." While your lessons should still have a balance between quiet attending and chances for movement, be aware that you must be even more sure of your management skills. The children will also fatigue easily, both physically and mentally, and afternoon classes may respond differently than morning classes. Keep children constructively busy.

Fine motor control problems continue to exist, especially for boys. Eye-hand coordination problems involved in writing, and to some extent reading, suggest that the FLES teacher continue to make use of bigger manipulatives and large-print books. Writing in the target language is best left until at least the second grade, both because of writing problems for some boys, and to give the children a sense of oral and aural competency.

Children also continue to be physically oriented. Their skills have grown, but so have the number of accidents. The children continue to overestimate their abilities, but because of inequities between large- and

small-muscle development, they may not be successful at all tasks, especially at earlier levels. They have a tendency to get carried away with their work and activity.

The Cognitive Domain

You are in luck, as these children generally remain eager learners. In most FLES classes, children remain excited by their second language experiences. Children at this age are more competent in verbal skills in their native language, but if you do write, keep it simple and give lots of assistance. Activities in which you or cooperative learning assistants from upper-level classes aid the children in developing their own storybooks or picture dictionaries for use at home are good examples of writing at this level.

Piaget and Inhelder (1969) and others suggest that early primary children remain concretely oriented, so continue to use a large variety of sensory input. Many of the students have some difficulty with such Piagetian concepts as conservation and reversibility in first and even second grade. Use lots of examples and ask them questions.

The Social Domain

Early elementary children are socially oriented. Friendship patterns become less flexible, although there still are changes. Children develop more or less permanent best friends and are more selective in their choices as they age. Quarrels may be frequent and good management skills continue to be necessary. Most quarrels last only a short time, but you need to have some sense of these antagonisms.

Because of a tendency to be rule-bound, many of the learning games you will use will have a chance to deteriorate into arguments. You will need to be alert to the fact that students will expect the adult to often be a judge of protocol. They can also get overly excited by team spirit and lose control of their own behavior. Games and activities that challenge individuals are to be preferred over team competition. Remember, losers feel just that, and you want everyone to have positive experiences. If you do use competition in some of the activities, avoid pitting the girls against the boys. They will get plenty of this from other sources, and such activities have strong negative developmental and social consequences.

The Emotional Domain

At about this age children begin to become more sensitive to the feelings of others, increasing their level of cultural awareness. Remember to draw parallels to their own culture in order to maintain the concreteness of your examples. And remember that language does not happen in a vacuum—teaching culture is one of the four national FLES goals (Rhodes and Schreibstein 1983).

These children continue to be very sensitive to ridicule, criticism, and failure. Learning a second language on top of all the other cognitive and social demands of the school leaves lots of opportunities for mistakes. Make sure that you are enhancing their education with encouragement and support. Do not hold up poor performance as an example. Offer gentle and sensitive correction. If you turn them off to a second language now, no one may ever have a chance later. Your goal is communicative competency, and children who are made to feel helpless or feel like failures are unlikely to continue to put forth the effort to like and learn another language. This feeling may well extend to their feelings about other cultures as well, so be aware of and careful about your interactions.

Later Primary Grades

The Physical Domain

The later primary years usher in a number of significant physical changes. By fifth and sixth grade, most girls and some early-maturing boys show a growth spurt. This may be a time more for concern than for joy on the part of the developing child, as unwanted attention, physical and social awkwardness, and other problems may accompany this period. As a result of this growth there is a heightened interest and concern about sex roles and sexuality. You may find that activities that involve both boys and girls will be difficult, as more time may be spent in teasing and resistance than in the activity. Be aware of this and use discretion.

Fine motor coordination is excellent at this time, and writing and reading skills much more advanced. Most children have a sense of competence about their ability to express themselves by both verbal and written means. When doing reading remember that the content should fit their age level, while vocabulary and difficulty may be at a much younger

level. You will have difficulty finding appropriate materials; do not hesitate to have them develop their own.

The Cognitive Domain

You will find that you will be much more aware of individual differences in all areas of competence. Specific differences in abilities and learning styles are much more apparent. You will have to individualize more of your material if you want to reach all the children. In most FLES programs, you will not have hand-picked children. Many programs include at-risk and special-education children in their FLES programs with a great deal of success, but you must be aware of their unique needs and developmental profiles.

Some abstract thinking will begin to appear toward the end of this period, but most of your students will be heavily dependent upon generalizations from concrete examples—something you should be expert at by this time. They do expect, however, new and higher-order examples and problems, and their thinking can go on at a much more complex level. Investigations into cause and effect, and even working with outcomes, is possible. Integration with the regular curriculum should persist whenever possible to continue to add meaning and provide relevancy.

The Social Domain

A disconcerting development for many new teachers at this point is the fact that peers begin to replace adults in importance. At the same time, the eagerness to learn begins to dissipate in many children as school becomes routine and more difficult. It will be up to you to provide interesting and challenging material for your students, but understand that you are no longer the center of their school universe.

The Emotional Domain

Expect more disruption in your classes. While the students are more mature, behavior disorders begin to peak by sixth grade. Males are often seen as more difficult students than females, and there is a tendency to give them more attention, both negative and positive. Do not neglect the females in your classes and work hard at giving more positive attention and ignoring negative behavior in all students.

Students feel caught between adult and peer pressures. While your importance is less than it was before, adults are still important to the children in this period. Assist them in understanding themselves and tie cultural and language experiences to their own experiences. Students are still afraid of failure; help them succeed. Channel attention-seeking behaviors into more appropriate behaviors by enlisting all students into an active participation rather than in passive learning.

Conclusion

Yours is a monumental task. Most FLES teachers are expected to be cultural representatives, linguists, special educators, substitute teachers, regular teachers, itinerant teachers, and visiting specialists. You will find, however, that the children are more receptive than you can imagine. A thorough grounding in developmental principles, a competency in the second language, expertise in methodology, and continued familiarization with national trends, issues, and goals will make your job easier and identify you as a professional. Knowing who and what children are in terms of their developmental needs will make being a FLES teacher a positive and rewarding experience for you and your students.

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2
Toward a More Thorough Understanding of Foreign Language Anxiety

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> I become anxious when I have to speak in a foreign language in a classroom setting.
> I become anxious when I am being spoken to in a foreign language in a classroom setting.

Approximately 26 percent of 173 beginning foreign language students at the postsecondary level agreed with the first statement above when asked to fill out an attitudinal questionnaire just before beginning the course; approximately 22 percent of the same students agreed with the second statement above. Two weeks later, after students had attended 60 class periods in an intensive program, the students were asked to react to these two statements once again. Then, approximately 46 percent agreed with the first statement and approximately 41 percent with the second statement. After spending two weeks in the course, students were, in fact, *more* anxiety-ridden about speaking and understanding the spoken word than *before* the course began. This paper will discuss foreign language anxiety as a malady afflicting beginning foreign language students at both the secondary and the college level and provide practical

strategies for teachers to use to combat foreign language anxiety in the classroom.

Instruments for Measuring Foreign Language Anxiety

The results of research on anxiety in the foreign language classroom have been inconsistent and often contradictory. Scovel (1978) cites studies by Swain and Burnaby (1976), Tucker, Hamayan, and Genesee (1976), Backman (1976), and Chastain (1975; 1980) to demonstrate the contradiction. Swain and Burnaby found a negative correlation between anxiety and only one of several measures of French proficiency for English-speaking children in a French immersion program. Tucker et al. discovered that anxiety correlated with only one of four measures of French proficiency. Backman observed that the two worst Spanish-speaking ESL students in her study received, respectively, the highest and the lowest score on an anxiety measures. Chastain's research showed the negative and positive effects of test anxiety in the foreign language classroom. In the former case, a correlational analysis, there was a significant negative correlation between test anxiety and final course grade for university students in a beginning French class using the audiolingual method. In the latter case, a regressional analysis, test anxiety correlated positively with the final course grade for university students in a beginning Spanish class using the "regular" method. Here, test anxiety was a significant predictor for the final course grade in Spanish.

Scovel insists that one way to strengthen future research on anxiety in the foreign language classroom is to differentiate, as Kleinmann (1977) has done in his research, between "facilitating" and "debilitating" anxiety (p. 105). First, Kleinmann hypothesized that a foreigner learning English avoids most frequently those English structures (e.g., infinitive complements, direct object pronouns, the passive voice, etc.) that contrast most with the foreigner's native language structures. Then, Kleinmann hypothesized that facilitating anxiety encourages a learner to use those English structures most frequently avoided by other members of the learner's own native language group. To test the two hypotheses, he studied the English output of Arabic and Spanish students using a variety of tests. The results of the study confirmed both hypotheses.

In the 80s, Young (1986) investigated the relationship between anxiety and foreign language oral proficiency ratings. She found sig-

nificant negative correlations between anxiety and the *ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (ACTFL OPI*, to be distinguished from the *Interagency Language Roundtable OPI*). The correlations were no longer significant, however, after the effects of foreign language ability were taken into account. As Young explains: "[O]nce the effect of an individual's language proficiency was accounted for, oral performance no longer decreased as anxiety increased" (p. 439). Steinberg and Horwitz (1986) examined the effect of induced anxiety on the content of oral descriptions of stimulus pictures in the target language. The researchers found that subjects in a treatment especially designed to increase their anxiety by making them feel pressured describe visual stimuli less interpretively, i.e., with fewer projective references to events not actually shown in the pictures, than do subjects in a nonthreatening, relaxed setting.

Recently, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) have hypothesized that an awareness of the theoretical perspective from which research in foreign language anxiety has developed can serve to clarify the conflicting results of past research. In their study, they predicted that anxiety based in the language environment would be associated with language learning, whereas other types of anxiety would not show consistent relationships to performance. After factor-analyzing 11 anxiety scales, they differentiated two orthogonal dimensions of anxiety, which they labeled "general anxiety" and "communicative anxiety" (p. 251). They found that only communicative anxiety was a factor in both the acquisition and production of French vocabulary. Analyses of the correlations between the anxiety scales and the measures of achievement showed that scales of foreign language anxiety and state (students' personal) anxiety were associated with performance. Scales of test anxiety, audience sensitivity, trait anxiety, and other types of anxiety did not correlate with any of the production measures.

In an attempt to gain a more thorough understanding of how anxiety operates in the classroom, both Horwitz et al. (1986) and the authors (1988) have constructed and administered surveys to foreign language students at their respective institutions. Horwitz et al. have developed an instrument to measure anxiety—the *Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS);* the authors have devised an attitudinal survey entitled *Survey of Attitudes Specific to the Foreign Language Classroom (SASFLC).* Both surveys have statements to which examinees react using

a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree. The statements in the *FLCAS* focus on communication apprehension in general (e.g., "In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know"), test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation in the foreign language classroom. The statements in the *SASFLC* center on communication apprehension as it specifically applies to the four skills (e.g., "I fear not understanding what the teacher is saying in a foreign language when I am in a foreign language classroom") and misconceptions about foreign language study (e.g., "It is necessary to have a special 'ear' in order to learn a foreign language well"). Horwitz later took five items from the *French Class Anxiety Scale* created by Gardner et al. (1974), made them generic, and added them to the *FLCAS* item pool.

Before developing the respective surveys, both groups of researchers studied instruments for measuring anxiety from other fields such as psychology, consulted with professionals in the foreign language field, and asked students to respond to questions about foreign language anxiety. Horwitz et al. used student input from the Support Group for Foreign Language Learning, which is described below, to develop the FLCAS; the authors used student input from the pilot sessions of the Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop, also described below, to create the *SASFLC*.

Both groups of researchers have used the surveys in their research on foreign language anxiety. Several years ago, Horwitz et al. administered the *FLCAS* to 75 students in four introductory Spanish classes in the third week of the semester. Results revealed that, in the majority of items about foreign language anxiety (19 of 33 items), 33 percent or more of the students indicated that they suffered from foreign language anxiety; in 7 of the 19 items, over 50 percent of the students revealed that they have problems coping with foreign language anxiety. (See table 2-1.) Using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, reliability analysis for internal consistency is .93 for the *FLCAS*.

The authors have administered the *SASFLC* to over 150 beginning foreign language students at DLI. We have found high levels of anxiety immediately *before* the start of the course and alarmingly high levels of anxiety two weeks *after* the course has started. (See table 2-2.) According to Survey 1, between 22 and 40 percent suffer from anxiety when trying to understand what is being said to them in the target language in class;

Table 2-1
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)
(Responses in Percentages)

	SA†	A	N	D	SD
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.	11‡	51	17	20	1
2. I *don't* worry about making mistakes in language class.	11	23	1	53	12
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.	5	16	31	29	19
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.	8	27	29	20	16
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.	15	47	12	16	11
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	7	19	31	32	12
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	13	25	20	28	13
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.	5	35	19	20	21
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.	12	37	19	28	4
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.	25	17	12	29	16
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.	5	17	36	37	4
12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	9	48	11	25	7
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.	0	9	19	57	15
14. I would *not* be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.	5	12	17	51	15
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	1	31	28	37	3
16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.	5	37	17	24	16
17. I often feel like not going to my language class.	19	28	19	23	12
18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.	1	28	24	43	4
19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	0	15	31	40	15

	SA	A	N	D	SD
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.	5	27	19	37	12
21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.	4	12	8	48	28
22. I *don't* feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.	3	12	19	44	23
23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.	12	19	25	31	13
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.	3	25	19	47	7
25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	16	43	11	28	3
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.	13	25	19	31	12
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.	5	28	28	31	8
28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	5	27	40	24	4
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.	3	24	24	43	7
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.	9	25	32	32	1
31. I am afriad that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.	3	7	20	53	17
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.	5	23	20	41	11
33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	5	44	17	31	3

SOURCE: Elaine K. Horwitz, M. Horwitz, and J. Cope, "Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety," *The Modern Language Journal* 70: 129–30.

† SA = strongly agree; A = agree; N = neither agree nor disagree; D = disagree; SD = strongly disagree.

‡ Data in this table are rounded to the nearest whole number. Percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table 2-2
Survey of Attitudes Specific to the Foreign Language Classroom (SASFLC)
(Percentages of Strongly Agree and Agree)

	Survey			
	S1†	S2	S3	S4
1. I think that the standard FL high school course is more difficult than the standard "numerically-oriented" high school course such as Algebra I.	22‡	25	16	0
2. I think that the standard FL high school course is more difficult than the standard "verbally-oriented" high school course such as History.	40	38	32	0
3. I fear making a mistake when I speak in a FL in classroom setting.	26	34	19	0
4. I become anxious when I am being spoken to in a FL in a classroom setting.	22	41	18	0
5. I fear failing this course.	45	56	21	0
6. It is necessary to have a special "ear" in order to learn a FL well.	55	38	54	33
7. I become anxious when I am asked to write in a FL in a classroom setting.	14	17	11	0
8. It is necessary to have a special aptitude (i.e., an inborn talent) in order to learn a FL well.	46	21	46	33
9. I fear making a mistake in writing in a FL in a classroom setting.	15	19	8	0
10. I fear making a mistake in reading in a FL in a classroom setting.	17	18	11	0
11. I become anxious when I have to speak in a FL in a classroom setting.	26	46	26	0
12. I fear receiving a low final grade (D or below) in this course.	45	53	21	0
13. It is necessary to have a special intelligence (i.e., a higher I.Q.) in order to learn a FL well.	31	18	39	33
14. I fear not understanding what the teacher is saying in a FL when I am in a FL classroom.	40	42	26	0
15. I feel silly when I have to speak a FL in a classroom setting.	10	8	11	0
16. I become anxious when I have to read in a FL in a classroom setting.	15	22	13	0

SOURCE: The Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, California.

† The four surveys were administered according to the following schedule: S1 ($N = 176$) at the start of the course, before the course began; S2 ($N = 172$) two weeks after the start of the course; S3 ($N = 37$) at course midpoint; S4 ($N = 3$) at course end.

‡ Data in this table are rounded to the nearest whole number. Percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding.

approximately 26 percent suffer from anxiety when they have to speak in the target language in class. Two weeks later, when students have already had 60 hours of instruction in the intensive DLI program, they are *much more* anxiety-ridden than they were before the course started. According to Survey 2, between 41 and 42 percent suffer from anxiety when trying to understand what is being said to them in the target language in class; between 34 and 46 percent suffer from anxiety when they have to speak in the target language in class. Surveys 1 and 2 reveal lower levels of anxiety for reading and writing than for listening and speaking. According to Survey 1, between 15 and 17 percent are anxious when they have to read in the target language in class; between 14 and 15 percent are anxious when they have to write in the target language in class. Two weeks later, after 60 hours of instruction, they are *slightly more* anxious than they were before the course started. According to Survey 2, between 18 and 22 percent are anxious when they have to read in the target language in class; between 17 and 19 percent are anxious when they have to write in the target language in class. The result of Survey 3 accounts for 37 of 176 subjects because the data were compiled before the other 139 students had reached course midpoint; the results of Survey 4 account for only 3 of 176 subjects because the data was compiled before the other 173 students had reached the end of the course. The decrease in anxiety in Survey 3 and the absence of anxiety in Survey 4 indicate that students are aware of a general tendency at DLI to retain students in a course if they are able to maintain passing grades through course midpoint. Prior to course midpoint, students with failing grades are asked to leave the course.

Some of the data on the negative clichés about foreign language study reveal confusing fluctuations from survey to survey. For example, for the statement "It is necessary to have a special aptitude (i.e., an inborn talent) in order to learn a foreign language well," 46 percent strongly agreed or agreed in Survey 1, 21 percent in Survey 2, 46 percent in Survey 3, and 33 percent in Survey 4. As seen in Survey 1, a considerably high percentage of students—between 22 and 55 percent—appear to believe the five negative misconceptions about foreign language study *before* they start the course.

Using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, reliability analysis for internal consistency for the *SASFLC* is .90.

Programs for Helping Students Cope with Foreign Language Anxiety

The findings of the surveys described above confirm what foreign language teachers already know: a certain percentage of the students in each class are "afflicted" with debilitating anxiety—the anxiety that impedes successful learning. As conscientious teachers, we help those students as best we can, offering both words of encouragement and tutoring during our office hours or after school. In recent years, two separate groups of foreign language professionals have investigated the idea of creating a workshop or a series of special sessions to try to reduce foreign language anxiety. Below, a description of two such programs.

The Support Group for Foreign Language Learning

In 1983, Horwitz et al. (1986) began the Support Group for Foreign Language Learning at the University of Texas after results of a survey revealed that students were interested in such a group. The program, which operated throughout the summer term, consisted of biweekly discussion sessions for two groups of fifteen students each. The sessions provided information on effective learning strategies, exercises in anxiety management, and the difficulties and rewards of foreign language learning.

The Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop

In 1986, the authors created the Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop at the Defense Language Institute (DLI) to help beginning foreign language students cope with foreign language anxiety. The goal of the three-hour workshop was to reverse the negative attitudes that many students have about foreign language study.[1]

The workshop—in which all new students of Spanish, German, Korean, and Russian at the San Francisco branch of DLI participated in 1987 and 1988 before beginning their intensive foreign language courses—included the following activities:

1. The administration of the *SASFLC* to assess students' anxiety levels pre- and postworkshop and to monitor student reactions throughout the language course. The *SASFLC* was administered

four times during a given language course—before the start of the course, two weeks into the course, at course midpoint, and at course end.

2. A discussion of a questionnaire—"The Myths and the Realities of Foreign Language Learning"—based on Pimsleur's (1980) renowned text *How to Learn a Foreign Language*.
3. Information on learning strategies specific to foreign language study.
4. Exercises designed to sensitize workshop participants to the importance of developing self-confidence, trust in the teacher, and a sense of camaraderie with the other students if they want the language learning experience to be rewarding.
5. An exercise in code-deciphering aimed at teaching students how to cope with the frustration that is a natural part of foreign language learning.
6. A discussion of the characteristics of the ideal foreign language teacher.

The workshop helps improve the individual participant's attitude toward foreign language study; it also promotes "esprit de corps" in the group as a whole. As the participants work through the exercises, they begin to realize that they do not have to have a special aptitude to excel in the foreign language classroom and that others share their fear of failure. One professor at a large university who was a workshop leader has made this comment about the effect of the workshop on students of a particular class: "The workshop was really an exceptionally rewarding experience. . . . There is a rare closeness among class members. . . . There is some sort of a group-adhesion syndrome, as if there is a confidence that as long as an individual can cling to the class as a whole—not get too far from the others—the entire body will float the individual along with it."[2]

Implications of the Survey Results for the Classroom: What the Teacher Can Do

Both Horwitz et al. (1986) and the authors' findings (1988) indicate that between 25 and 50 percent of postsecondary students in the first stages of a language program, whether conventional or intensive, suffer from what appears to be debilitating anxiety. As teachers we must find

ways to help the students at this critical moment in the foreign language learning experience. Below are five suggestions for the teacher who wants to minimize foreign language anxiety in his or her classroom:

1. The result of the *SASFLC* show high levels of anxiety for the skills of listening (between 22 and 40 percent in Survey 1; between 26 and 42 percent in Survey 2) and speaking (26 percent in survey 1; between 34 and 46 percent in Survey 2). In contrast, the results reveal moderate levels of anxiety for the skills of reading (between 15 and 17 percent in Survey 1; between 18 and 22 percent in Survey 2) and writing (between 14 and 15 percent in Survey 1; between 17 and 19 percent in Survey 2). Given these findings, try to use more reading and writing exercises at the beginning of the course until the students feel more comfortable with the target language. Also, try to use listening and speaking exercises in the classroom that are less threatening. Students tend to feel more comfortable working in pairs and groups when the task involves some sort of oral presentation of information. For example, instead of requiring that each student stand up alone and give an oral report, have students present reports in pairs or in groups.
2. As seen in Survey 1, a considerably high percentage of students—between 22 and 55 percent—appear to believe the five negative misconceptions about foreign language study *before* they start the course. On the first day of class, arrange the chairs of the classroom in a circle. Begin a discussion on the negative clichés about foreign language study. Use either your own materials or contact the authors for information.[3] Convince your students that, as we all know, almost anyone can learn a foreign language!
3. On the first day of class, arrange the chairs of the classroom in a circle. Begin a discussion on one or more of the following topics: student attitudes toward foreign language study; negative clichés about foreign language learning (e.g., "You have to have a special aptitude to learn a foreign language well"); study strategies specific to foreign language study; characteristics of the ideal language learner; and more. Use either your own materials or contact the authors for information.

4. On the first day of class, ask your students to fill out either the *FLCAS* or the *SASFLC*. Use the results as a diagnostic tool and, if possible, modify the curriculum accordingly. If you ask students to fill out their names on the surveys, you will be able to target those students who are especially anxious and give them special help.
5. At the end of each week, during the last ten minutes of the class period, ask the students to share any problems that they have had with the course so far. You may find that the students are using all the wrong study habits! One word of advice: Be careful not to let the ten minutes degenerate into a complaint session aimed at the curriculum or the teacher.

As foreign language teachers, most of us are acutely aware of our own students' anxiety about foreign language study. Nevertheless, we neglect to spend the critical first few hours of a course priming our students psychologically for an experience that surveys indicate makes between 25 and 50 percent of them apprehensive. If we make the effort to combat the negative attitudes that students have about foreign language study, we will improve the learning environment and ultimately curb attrition in our foreign language classrooms.

Notes

1. The creators of the workshop later lengthened it to four hours. Because it is so difficult, however, for teachers at the secondary and university level to allot four hours for an activity of this sort, the creators of the workshop have recently developed and put into practice a two-hour workshop. The teacher interested in this type of activity can write the authors for materials or develop his or her own. Because a workshop or session of this type is especially designed to prime students for the rest of the course, it is important that the teacher conduct it either (a) ***before*** the course begins (if it is administratively possible) or (b) ***during the first two or three class periods*** of the course in lieu of teaching the target language course material. Recently, a professor at a major American university successfully used the workshop materials during the first three class periods of his French course.
2. T. Critchfield, in a letter to the authors, 4 September 1988.
3. Commandant, The Defense Language Institute, ATFL-ES-T (Dr. Campbell), Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

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3
Prioritizing Student Learning: A Guide for Teachers

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All students have the potential to be competent learners of a foreign language if they are given the tools for strategic learning. This belief is inherent in the research findings of an ever-growing body of publications in the field of learning strategies for foreign and second language learning (Brown 1989; Cohen 1990; Costa 1985; O'Malley and Chamot 1990; Oxford 1990; Wenden and Rubin 1987). This article gives an overview of research on learning strategies, demonstrating why they are crucial to the learning process and showing how to introduce learning strategies into regular classroom instruction. For this purpose, a guide is provided for teachers who would like to act as true learning facilitators when they give students information on *how* to learn.

Learning strategies are the tools that make language learning more effective, rapid, and enjoyable. Learning strategies, *operationally* defined, are the strategic techniques used by language learners to comprehend and process *new* information more deeply, to help to recall *old* information, and to apply knowledge and skills to facilitate problem-solving.

Importance of Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are important because, first, they enable students to become more autonomous, self-directed, and responsible for developing their own language proficiency (Wenden and Rubin 1987). Second, research has linked the use of appropriate learning strategies to successful language performance (Naiman et al. 1975; Rubin 1975; Wenden 1985).

Third, effective learning strategies can be taught for application in or outside the classroom (Dansereau 1978; Chamot and Kupper 1989). In sum, learning strategies have the potential to enable students to develop more readily their learning potential in a self-directed manner for long-term use.

Lack of Awareness

From the research thus far, it is evident that most language learners are generally unaware of the wide variety of learning strategies available to them and use a limited number (Chamot and Kupper 1989) of strategies restricted to the tasks of oral, silent, or written repetition, visualization, self-testing, and comparison to their native language (Nyikos 1986). While many students know there are recognized strategies for reading, most report not using strategies such as skimming and scanning as they "ought to." Even fewer students know of strategies for more effective writing, listening, and oral communication.

Focus on the Learner

Language-learning strategies focus attention on the learner as the center of the learning process. As such, students' cognitive, affective, and social needs are viewed in concert with their abilities and talents as learners. Seen as learning strategies, these needs and talents are divided into cognitive abilities (assimilating information, summarizing, recombining), affective needs (affirmation, success), and social needs (clarification, cooperative learning). Teachers who recognize their students' learning needs in this expanded sense are better able to address these needs by incorporating learning strategy instruction into the regular curriculum. Promoting a wide variety of learning strategies helps teachers accommodate learning-style variations among their students. Students then have the opportunity to choose those strategies that appeal to them and can compensate for differences between their own learning style and the teaching style of the instructor. As students realize they have such learning tools at their disposal, they gain greater control over a variety of ways to learn and develop a greater sense of autonomy in their own learning (Oxford et al. 1990).

The increased emphasis on the role of the learner is due to several factors, including the shift of language teaching methodology to emphasize communicatively oriented learning activities (Oxford, Lavine, and Crookall 1989) and the expanded view cognitive psychology takes to include the learner's active engagement in learning. Research has found that communication strategies (such as circumlocution and turn taking) can enable students to become more competent speakers when teachers allow students to choose selectively among various social learning strategies through small-group work and critical thinking activities (Oxford 1990; Oxford, Lavine, and Crookall 1989). By implementing learning events that require students to apply these communicative techniques, teachers play a crucial role in cultivating the development of utilizable strategies for future learning events and authentic communication (Chamot and Kupper 1989; Oxford et al. 1990).

The recognition of the learner as an active participant in the problem-solving task of language learning is at the heart of learning strategy research and of learner-centered teaching. By placing the focus on the learner as the key figure in the learning process, researchers and teachers find that when students are given strategies on *how* to learn, they become more directly involved in organizing and controlling their own learning processes. Active involvement by the learner, coupled with increased success, leads to greater motivation to pursue foreign language learning beyond the beginning level (case studies in Oxford et al. 1990).

On the cognitive level, all learners are viewed as being actively involved in processing incoming information whether in the form of print, speech, or other sensory sources. This is particularly true of foreign language learning in which students try to "make sense"—a term often used to describe the cognitive process during reading—of strings of sound and letters they hear and see (Calkins 1986). Too often, students are left to their own devices to process the target language input and receive very little concrete guidance from teachers—not on what to learn, but on how to go about learning on their own outside the classroom. Given these learner needs, the teacher's mission emerges more clearly as a learning facilitator who can actively help students with their learning. This role is further delineated by the need for teachers to be aware of which specific learning strategies to teach to their classes. Recent publications by Cohen (1990), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), and Wenden (1985)

are highly recommended for teachers to gain information on specific learning strategies and their instruction. Brown (1989), Pimsleur (1980), and Rubin and Thompson (1982) provide excellent strategy guides that are directly addressed to students.

Teaching Strategies

Until recently emphasis has been on teaching strategies rather than learning strategies. Generally speaking, teaching strategies are those actions and techniques used by the *teacher* to convey information to students. Teachers have many information sources for teaching strategies: conferences, workshops, journals, conversations with other teachers, and teacher editions of textbooks, which give strategies on how to deliver instruction. Students, on the other hand, are told to memorize, to study, and to prepare for tests—directives that rarely give them the tools or strategies to make their learning effective and task-appropriate in view of their learning styles. Learning styles—which are the general cognitive and personality preferences a person has for various modes of memorizing, information processing, and knowledge application—are addressed extensively by Ehrman and Oxford (1990).

The role of teacher changes qualitatively from the usual when teachers take on the updated role of facilitator and guide by incorporating learning-strategy instruction into their curriculum. Instruction on how to use learning strategies should not be taught separately (as in a teaching module) but should be modeled simultaneously with what is being taught (Chamot and Kupper 1989). When teachers supply alternative ways to study and learn, it gives students with divergent learning styles the opportunity to pick and choose among the options.

Learners have many active strategies for learning, but several factors hold them back from using them. One inhibiting factor could be called *strategy amnesia* for the strategies we unconsciously used in learning a native language (using playful repetition and song; willingness to keep trying even if we appear foolish). Many of these forgotten strategies can be revived through instruction and guided practice. Another factor preventing effective strategy use is *uncertainty*, if not anxiety, when facing a new subject, where it is not clear which strategies are legitimate to transfer. For example, many students are afraid to use the native language reading strategy of skipping unfamiliar words while reading. This lack of

strategy transfer leads many students to spend valuable time looking up unfamiliar words rather than use context to guess the proper meaning. The debilitating effect of anxiety with respect to speaking is well-documented by researchers (Horwitz and Young 1991).

Relevance to Teachers

The language teacher who incorporates the demonstration of multiple learning strategies into instruction has the potential to make language learning an enabling process for students. Teachers can model a variety of appropriate ways by which students can continue to learn the material on their own. This can include ways to memorize through tactile, psychomotor association, e.g., by touching or feeling objects when memorizing nouns or by either physically acting out or mentally picturing oneself performing the actions (for verbal phrases) that are being memorized. Furthermore, teachers can give students a chance to practice with a range of contexts where these strategies are best applied. For example, provide realistic, culturally authentic contexts for peer group practice in which the language they are learning becomes communicative. Having students employ communicative strategies, such as circumlocution or reiteration of a message, can be implemented by assignments in which students must telephone a class member to find out something about a cultural event for the next day. For example, a teacher can give half the class the information (which the other half doesn't hear/see). The *un*informed members must later phone an informed member and ask for the message in the target language. The caller must then paraphrase the message and ask back if this was the right message: "Oh, you would like me to bring a small St. Nicholas gift for Kelly on Tuesday?" The teacher first models this scenario when giving the assignment and the students practice it in class. These strategies also can be combined effectively in role-play in which one student tells a partner about a party. Details are given and the partner must summarize. The communicative strategies the speaker should use include socioculturally appropriate language, such as use of fillers during pauses, reiteration of what the partner didn't understand, and starting over, using different words if the message isn't getting across—all strategies used by native speakers.

Another idea for listening comprehension: use a telephone request from one student to the other to bring in a specific item (apple, picture of a

person) to class as evidence that the partner (from the other team) has understood. Points for comprehension are awarded. Two to three students can also call the teacher at appropriate times of the week with a specific message or question. Proper telephone etiquette must be maintained. The teacher can encourage students to continue these activities on their own as a means of developing strategies for communication. Again, it is important that the teacher model these strategies. After the activity, teachers should ask students to state some of the strategies they used (in nontechnical terms) to help them increase control over how they learn.

The likelihood of independent strategy use is further increased when students can *adapt* strategies to their individual learning styles. Nevertheless, it is the teacher's role to help monitor these strategies to make certain they fit the situation or task. For example, when a student uses flashcards to learn vocabulary, the teacher can ask the student to demonstrate *how* they use this study aid. Do they simply repeat or do they also use a color code or picture and sound associations? Teachers can also suggest multiple associations that help increase the likelihood of information retrieval from memory (Cohen and Aphek 1980; Nyikos 1985). It is not unusual when studying vocabulary for students to simply list the single word on one side of the card and the target language equivalent on the other side, without thinking of incorporating the single word into a frequently used target language phrase (which, again, the teacher can best supply).

When teaching learning strategies through modeling, the teacher should not lecture on how, but rather continuously model (act out) appropriate learning techniques for the task at hand. Specifically, the teacher should first show the class how to carry out the task, then have students practice in pairs, and finally—crucial to strategy inclusion—the class discusses the value of the specific language learning strategy (e.g., paraphrasing) as a strategy that can be applied to a number of communicative situations (and here students give examples or the teacher provides rationale). Such posttask analysis is valuable in that it is grounded in the immediate experience of the students and allows students to reflect and find their *own* reasons for using the strategies.

For teachers the real question becomes: how can we enable students to use learning strategies effectively and independently in an atmosphere where they feel comfortable taking risks as they try out new strategy applications? How can we facilitate transfer of familiar strategies to new

foreign language applications when reading, listening, speaking, and writing?

Types of Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies are divided in many ways, according to the classification patterns by different researchers (Oxford, Lavine, and Crookall 1990; Chamot and Kupper 1989; O'Malley and Chamot 1990). The most commonly used categories are cognitive, social/affective, and metacognitive strategies.

Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies may be viewed as what goes on inside the learner's head—that is, operations internal to the learner and thus not observable. New information can be better understood and recalled through strategies such as making associations to past events, to sounds, and to places. Cognitive strategies further include note taking, associations to native language words with common features, use of mnemonics, breaking down new vocabulary into component parts, and guessing words from context. The value of cognitive strategies is that they help us retrieve information on demand, in the form needed.

Social/Affective Strategies

Social/affective strategies involve communication situations in which the language learner interacts with classmates or the teacher when called on to answer, ask a question, or give information in a culturally appropriate manner. Social strategies include asking questions when one doesn't understand, turn taking in conversations, and continuing to participate even when one doesn't understand. Affective strategies such as self-encouragement to help reduce anxiety and "giving oneself credit" for even small successes in language-related tasks are important to maintain self-confidence and motivation.

In traditional, noncommunicatively oriented classroom settings, students have no opportunity to interact with native speakers or classmates, eliminating the possibility of building social strategies. Unfortunately, many classroom students also are hindered by the lack of adequate opportunity to ask each other meaningful questions through which they

elicit useful information about the likes, dislikes, and lives of their fellow classmates. By engaging students in using strategies, teachers promote student initiative to use language communicatively and more effectively within the time given for practice. Time previously used for less productive (mechanical or fill-in-the-blank) practice decreases as more communicative learning strategies are incorporated.

Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies are the cognitive operations by which one regulates, monitors, and analyzes one's success in language learning tasks. Metacognitive strategies allow students to go beyond immediate involvement in the learning task and take a step back to assess their own progress. In other words, students assert executive control over the processes, direction, and pace of their own learning. Teachers can assist students by telling them "These strategies allow you to become aware of what time of the day and under what conditions you study most or least effectively; to assess whether you need rewards and/or frequent breaks." Such strategies help students regulate their learning experiences.

Research indicates that the critical difference between successful learners and their less successful peers may lie in the finding that successful language learners make more frequent use of metacognitive strategies (Chamot and Kupper 1989; Oxford and Nyikos 1989; and Stern 1975). Thus, teachers can assist less successful students by encouraging them to use metacognitive strategies, enabling students to judge how well learning strategies they currently use work for them and to try out and evaluate other possible learning strategies. Furthermore, students need to be taught *how* and *when* to couple specific strategies with the appropriate cultural and study situation. The teacher's guidance is critical in that learners have little awareness of how to build these strategies on their own.

In this process, caution must be used when suggesting to students that they *should* adopt *specific* strategies used by good language learners on several accounts:

1. Less successful students often are already using several strategies well-suited to their own learning style, but may apply them haphazardly.

2. Less successful students need to try out different types of strategies before they find those that work best for them.
3. Less successful students need guidance to identify which learning strategies are best suited to specific language tasks and to apply them in a systematic fashion.

Ways to Identify Strategies Students Use

How can teachers find out what strategies students already use? Some techniques used effectively by researchers are adapted below for teachers' use.

1. *Self-reports* involve learners in a given task (e.g., doing a reading or grammar exercise) and ask them to tell the teacher what they are doing as they complete the task (Hosenfeld 1976). Another, less intrusive technique is to give a quiz and not collect it, but instead ask students to write down next to each item how they recalled it and which strategies they would recommend as the most effective for memorization and application tasks (Nyikos 1986). After an oral interview, ask students to explain how they recalled modes of expression and which strategies aided speaking fluency. This is a wonderful opportunity to ask about anxiety-controlling affective strategies.
2. *Surveys* (Reiss 1983; Ramirez 1986) or inventories such as the Strategy Inventory for Language learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990) in which learners report the degree to which they use the listed strategies. For instance, "I listen to foreign language tapes whenever I can."
3. *Diaries or Dialogue Journals* as reported by Cohen and Aphek (1980) ask students to write down reflectively what strategies they are using on a daily basis while learning in and outside the classroom. A very general way to approach learning strategy surveys is to find out from your students how they study for *another subject* they like. Have them analyze their study habits. One way to do this is in essay form, where students can write freely. A more structured approach, however, often yields more precise information. An essay-type questionnaire may be given for a subject area in which strategies for reading are the focus.

Students can name their own subject (fill in a blank). Then they can write answers to such questions as: How do you usually study for this subject? How often in this week . . .? When you study for a test, how do you organize the material? These data-gathering techniques, along with interviews, have contributed to our understanding of what goes on inside learners' heads—or at least to the extent that students are aware of and can articulate these cognitive operations.

Benefits to Students

Whatever benefits the student benefits the teacher. When students have the tools for learning more effectively, they become excited about learning, and the class atmosphere improves. One way to promote such an atmosphere and metacognitive awareness is to ask students to share some of their learning strategies including mnemonic devices for remembering vocabulary (and other linguistic features). Novice learners often have immediate insight into the difficulties other novices are experiencing and can share their solutions as bridges between those the teacher models and what is readily applicable to fellow beginners. Through strategy-sharing sessions, students are able to exchange their tried-and-true strategies and receive new suggestions from other students. In other words, students are able to borrow language-learning techniques from each other and find out what techniques are most beneficial in understanding, mastering, and applying various grammatical and communicative concepts. In sum, a noticeable change in class atmosphere occurs during strategy-sharing sessions. These sessions deemphasize competition and facilitate learning in a congenial, supportive atmosphere.

A Guide for Teachers

The teacher's role is that of helper and guide who will set up a relaxed atmosphere. This can be done by telling students that risk taking during communicative activities will not be penalized, but students are expected and encouraged to use more sophisticated vocabulary and grammatical expression in order that they may reach a higher level of conversational fluency. It should be stressed that students are expected to make mistakes in their attempts to speak or write and that they will not be penalized;

instead guidance will be given in a nonjudgmental way. According to most students, a noncompetitive, relaxed atmosphere is one in which the teacher has a sense of humor about mistakes and is cheerfully willing to correct mistakes that impede meaning (Navarro-Thames 1989).

A Guide to Foster Learning Strategy Use

Role of the Teacher

Establish an atmosphere of trust—an atmosphere where students feel comfortable asking for help and sharing their learning difficulties and successes or achievements.

Steps

A. Find out which strategies your students already employ in other subject areas.
   1. Strategies used in other subjects and social situations in their native language (reading, writing, listening, speaking)
   2. Strategies they can transfer to the target language

B. Find out which strategies your students have employed in previous foreign language learning.
   1. Strategies that proved *productive* in the skill areas of vocabulary and grammar
   2. Strategies that proved *less successful* in the skill areas of vocabulary and grammar
   3. Strategies that became more frequent, automatic, and integrated over time and allowed a progression and combination in strategy use

C. Modeling
   1. Suggest and model *multiple* strategies for each teaching point and skill area, tapping into various senses. Provide a cultural context in which each strategy is most productive.
   2. Model ways in which to retrieve vocabulary based on situational cues. Daily cultural situations evoke associations of feelings, memories, and senses that can be used as mnemonic devices for vocabulary.

D. Adult learners need to know why they should spend time on developing strategies. A rationale provides a goal and helps students monitor their progress toward the stated goal.
   1. Provide the rationale using each strategy presented.
   2. Ask learners to state their own rationales, relating strategy use to their personal goals for language learning and self-motivation.

E. *Practice*: Give guided exercises and provide experiences to help students apply strategies to appropriate tasks.
   1. As an example, after learning vocabulary in commonly occurring phrases, strategies for *informed guessing* or *inferencing* in reading passages may be modeled. These strategies may facilitate transfer to similar reading situations where the meaning of a phrase may be guessed solely on the basis of one vocabulary word and/or from the cultural context of the passage.
   2. Social/affective strategies can be modeled in a dialog, situated in a given cultural context. For example, in a dialog asking for the check at a Paris restaurant, socially appropriate questions can be asked by the student, but brisk, uninformative answers are given by the native "informant." In order to plug in affective strategies like self-encouragement, the teacher can model the procedure by use of "asides" such as "It's okay to keep asking the waiter for the written form of the check. How else can I pay the bill?" "Good, you're doing fine; be persistent, don't give in."

F. Help students develop their *own* strategies as they gain experience in language learning.
   1. Help students monitor the effectiveness of their present strategies to see if the strategies really work for them. Give alternative strategies, since learning tasks change and require different approaches to accommodate increasing linguistic awareness and communicative needs.
   2. Have students try suggested strategies in their classwork, in their homework, and on their own. Ask students to write down which ones they found beneficial.

3. Have students alter suggested strategies to suit their learning styles. Some students find that they communicate best if they are allowed to learn it from charts. Others learn best if they study with a friend.
4. Have students create their own strategies. The foreign language classroom is an ideal place to allow student creativity.

C. *Sharing sessions:* Get everyone involved in sharing their learning discoveries and self-generated learning strategies as a regular part of class. Students who are closely involved in the learning process often have fresh insights to share with fellow learners in simplified, understandable terms. Also, personal learning strategies are often quite amusing and students greatly enjoy sharing them in a supportive atmosphere. For teachers, they are informative, providing feedback on how students study (and the opportunity to see where ineffective strategies are being applied). Most importantly, sharing sessions are the *ideal* source of further strategies to enhance the teacher's repertoire and can be shared with other classes.

Role of the Student

Monitor for effectiveness: Find out, observe what *works* for *you*. Be an aware learner. Resolve to

1. Give suggested strategies a chance to take hold—some will seem initially cumbersome but can become automatic with practice. Think of learning to type or to drive a car. The conscious effort you needed to shift gears, drive, *and* pay attention to your driving instructor was tremendous and yet, over time, it becomes automatic and easy.
2. Try to *alter* the strategies that your teacher and classmates suggest to suit your learning style—not everyone is the same.
3. Share your insights with one another; it can be informative, supportive (you're all in the same boat), and motivating.
4. Be aware of how and when you study best.
5. Be aware of your attitudes toward language learning and toward strategies in general. If you don't give learning tools a chance, you can't find out if they might work for you.

6. Keep a list of possible strategies on hand. You may find that having a list of options in your notebook or journal is handy when the going gets rough.
7. Set short-term and long-term goals. Write a schedule for yourself. Time yourself on different types of assignments and break them into chunks. See how long certain tasks take. Getting to know yourself helps future study plans. Don't leave studying to the last minute. (This is the most frequent strategy tip students give one another.)
8. After a test, sit down and reflect on what strategies helped you most. Write down what you resolve to do to prepare for the next test.
9. Reward yourself; it's a great self-motivator. Small rewards for short-term tasks like getting a snack or taking a music break help to dissipate tension and will refresh you for the next small chunk of learning.

Research on learning strategies has shown that differential student performance can be largely traced to the *inadequate* use of *appropriate* learning strategies among less successful students. Teachers who integrate learning strategies into their curriculum are able to increase significantly the effectiveness of their teaching—especially for less successful learners. It could be said that *teaching* strategies help the student learn the foreign language; *learning* strategies enable students to master, and apply, the knowledge that the teacher has conveyed. It has been argued here that teaching strategies are only half of the learning equation. Appropriate application of learning strategies comprises the balance of the learning equation for successful learning.

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Section II

Learner-Directed Strategies

4
Involve Me and I'll Learn: Active Participation Strategies for Foreign Language Classes

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"Tell me and I'll listen; show me and I'll remember; involve me and I'll learn" is an old saw as true in the foreign language classroom as in any other situation. It may also be an important link in the learning process described by Rivers (1968):

> The more the student is interested in an activity in the foreign language, the more s/he feels the desire to communicate in the language, and this is the first and most vital step in learning to use language forms spontaneously. (p. 109)

Fortunately, most of us have classes made up of students who are there by choice, unlike some of our colleagues in other disciplines. We also, however, have passive students who challenge our ability to keep them interested. Burt is there because his parents insisted that he take at least two years of a foreign language. He has very little interest and even less ability. Sylvia needed one more class to complete her schedule, and she decided to join her best friend in this one. Sam has been mainstreamed from special education into the foreign language class.

Frank just moved in from another school and has a completely different language background. Then there's Clarice, very capable and self-motivated, eager to learn as much as possible, and always ready with an answer. Marsha lived with her family in Guatemala for eight years. Now, the youngest person in the third-year class, she is more fluent than the others but hesitates to speak out. How can a teacher meet the needs of this variety of personalities and get them "turned on" to the foreign language?

One thing we need to keep in mind is that the amount of material "covered" during the year does not necessarily mean that the students learn it. Grittner and LaLeike (1973) point out that our task is to help them "learn to do a few things well and come away with a feeling of success" (p. 74). This may mean "telescoping" parts of the textbook in order to allow more time for communicative activities (Morrow and Strasheim 1977: 77–78). Even though the emphasis must be on tasks that allow students to *use* the language, there are some basic elements of grammar and structure that must be presented. These, too, can be made more interesting through the use of active participation strategies.

Burt answers his question and then drifts away while the teacher calls on other students. This is time-out for him, because he knows that everyone else will have a chance before it's his turn again. Sylvia shrinks into her seat and tries to disappear when the teacher calls her name because she has no idea how to answer. Besides, she doesn't have to wait long before the teacher will call on someone else.[1] Let Clarice answer: she's always right anyway. Whatever method the teacher uses to get responses from the students, it is usually one student at a time who is "on the hot seat," and the others breathe a sigh of relief. One of the goals of active participation is to keep every student involved consistently and to eliminate those "waiting periods" when minds tend to wander.

In a workshop on maintaining teacher effectiveness, Maas (1987) demonstrated several methods of involving students actively in the learning process. According to his definition, *active participation is the consistent involvement of the student's mind with the learning.* On a videotape available through Phi Delta Kappa, he models strategies that can work for any teaching level, regardless of the subject matter. An attempt is made here to adapt his ideas for use in the foreign language classroom.

Types of Active Participation

There are two types of active participation. *Covert* activities call for the students' mental involvement through tasks such as thinking, recalling, listening, and reading. The learning that is taking place cannot be perceived or observed by anyone else, because it is taking place in the students' minds. These activities are nonthreatening and also encourage thinking and creativity on the part of *all* students.

The following list includes some of the strategies that may be used to encourage covert participation:

- Think about
- Study your notes
- Read silently
- Imagine
- What do you think?
- Brainstorm some ideas in your head
- Listen
- Recall

Overt activities are those that have the potential for being perceived or observed. When the objective has been attained, the students stand up, tell a neighbor, write down an idea, or use signals to show the teacher what they think is the right answer. With just a glance around the room, the teacher can check the students' comprehension of the concept. All students are involved in the process, the teacher has instant feedback, and there are no papers to grade!

The possibilities for overt responses are numerous and can be easily expanded:

- Tell your neighbor
- Write on a piece of paper (scratch pad)
- Some write at the chalkboard while others write on paper
- Discuss with a partner
- Stand up as soon as you're ready
- Sit down after you have repeated the forms correctly to your neighbor
- Everybody say (or shout) an answer
- Unison responses

These responses are often from the whole class, but may also be divided. One half of the class may respond to a question asked by the other half. Boys may speak to girls, one row speak to another, or one

student to the whole class. Any student will wake up quickly when the teacher calls on him or her to answer a question asked by the whole class! Unpredictable response patterns help to keep students alert and involved. They are also more interested in responding when they know that the points they receive for speaking individually are an important part of their grade.

- Stand up/Sit down
- Write down some questions you think will be on the test
- Write your brainstormed ideas

Various responses can be used to show agreement or disagreement:

- Hand signals (facing down or sideways)
- Pen/pencil or thumb signals (up—agree; down—disagree; sideways—unsure)
- Response cards

The three just mentioned should be done at chest level and close to the body so that only the teacher can see the answer. This reduces the threat of being wrong and also makes each student answer independently.

The possibilities for response cards in mastering language forms are limited only by the teacher's imagination. Each student has a strip of lightweight cardboard (approximately $3 \times 8''$) marked with the cues she or he will need to point out the answer: morning/afternoon/night; symbols for weather expressions or seasons of the year; masculine/feminine; singular/plural; present/past; indicative/subjunctive; true/false; agree/disagree (this could be a smiling or frowning face); expressions to show emotion; object pronouns, etc. Initials can be used, or symbols, and it is helpful to include a question mark for the undecided student. The same cues are written on the front and back of the card so that it looks identical from both sides, and students pinch their chosen answer. This allows both teacher and student to view the response at the same time. To prolong the usability of the cards, they can be laminated or covered with clear contact paper. A "generic" card such as a tricolor French flag can be used with a number of overt responses. The answer indicated by each color may be explained on the board or a transparency.

- Cross/uncross arms
- Clap/boo

The last response should be used rarely, and only when the teacher is sure that the student called on will give a correct answer. (The teacher has listened to the conversation between the students as they were brainstorming and knows that they have a good example to share with the class.)

These types of strategies may be used in various combinations. All-covert is followed by all-overt when the teacher says, "Everyone think of two things you might wear to go skiing, and then write them down." One-covert and all-overt: "Linda, think of how you would describe the weather today, and everyone else describe today's weather on your paper." This could be followed by one-overt and all-overt: "Let's hear Linda's answer, and if you agree with her, let me know by showing a thumbs-up signal."

One combination that can never be used too much is one covert, one-overt, all-covert, all-overt. "Polly, think of an example of an individual sport." She answers. "Everybody, think about what Polly just said, and hold your pencil up if you agree."

It is important to note here that during the times when students are discussing their ideas or writing things down, the teacher needs to be moving around among them. This not only makes the teacher available to help out when necessary, but also keeps the students on task.

Foreign Language Examples of Active Participation

It is very likely that some of these patterns are naturally included in our teaching. It may be helpful, though, to recognize what they are and understand why some of our efforts have perhaps been more successful than others. The following examples show how active participation strategies may be used to aid in mastery of language forms as well as communicative activities.

Mastery of Language Forms

1. *Study* the irregular commands on page 97.
   Write them once on your scratch paper. Check your work.
   Stand up when you think you can repeat all of them without looking.

Say them to your neighbor and then listen as he or she repeats them. When you both have said them correctly, you may sit down. This could be followed by another overt activity: let the students close their books and write the commands to turn in for a grade and a guaranteed feeling of success!

2. *Imagine* that your family is going to spend a vacation at the Riviera. You have just gone shopping for some things you will need for this trip, but you left your shopping bag in your friend's car, and now she is returning it to you. What might be in the bag?
   Write down some things that you would take on a beach vacation.
   Ask the teacher if a certain item is in the bag. If it is there, the teacher will take it out, and everyone who has that item on his or her list will mark it off. Eventually everything in the bag will be identified, and students will name the things they listed that were not in the bag.
3. *Look at the transparency* that explains how to put *estar* in its P.L.A.C.E. (See Mason 1990.)
   Copy the uses of *estar* and examples in your notebook.

This is one of many tasks that can be used as "sponge activities," which are designed to utilize the wasted moments when students are waiting for learning to take place. These activities focus the students on what they are learning, keep their minds busy, and provide necessary review. With the overhead projector ready to turn on at the beginning of class, a sponge activity can involve the students instantly while the teacher takes attendance, signs absence excuses, or gives instructions to the third-year students who are working independently with a second-year class. Two other examples of sponge activities are "While I'm talking to the principal, read the next paragraph and be ready to give me the main idea," or "As I erase the board, think of all the uses of the subjunctive you know and review them in your head." (See Lubiner and Lubiner 1990.) Some workbook assignments can also be effective sponge activities.

Study the list of *estar* uses until you can name them without looking.

Listen to the sentences read by the teacher and decide whether *ser* or *estar* is the correct verb.

Stand up if *estar* is correct, since it is the action verb. Remain in your seat if *ser* is correct.

Stand-up, sit-down responses can also be used with taped listening comprehension activities that accompany the textbook. For example, if the students have to determine whether the action is taking place now or it is going to take place soon, they can stand if it is going to happen. Or stand if Pierre has to leave the house to do this activity; stay seated if it's something he can do at home.

The preceding active participation strategies show a few ideas for teaching verb forms, vocabulary, and other language elements. They all become more interesting and are better remembered when the students' minds are actively involved in the learning process. Since the teaching of correct forms is intended to prepare students to *use* the language for communication, the majority of examples deal with suggestions for reading, listening, and speaking activities.

Communicative Activities

1. *Think about* how it might feel to live in a small town in Costa Rica. You want to talk to your friend, but she lives on the other side of town. Neither of you has a telephone, and even if you had a driver's license, there wouldn't be a car to drive. What could you do?
   Discuss with a partner some possible solutions.
   Hold up your fingers to show how many ideas you and your partner have thought of.
   At this point the teacher calls on one of the groups that has thought of only one solution to share it with the class. Then the teacher calls on one with two ideas, saving the group with the most answers until last. How many times do we kill a student's enthusiasm by having someone else give the answer before she or he gets a chance to say it?
2. *Read silently* the first paragraph of the story.
   Raise your head and look at me when you think you understand why Paula wants to visit Paris.
   Discuss with your neighbor(s) the reasons that you found.
   The teacher can tell instantly who understands and who doesn't. By changing the normal pairs to include a third person, the teacher allows the student who has not yet found the answer to interact with others who know. This avoids embarrassment and helps that student to learn and feel involved. Another advantage of the

discuss-with-your-neighbor pattern is that everybody is talking about the topic rather than just one or two students who are reporting to the teacher.

3. *Read* the question on your card aloud and think of a possible answer.
   Walk around the room (one student at a time), repeating the question and listening to what others are saying until you find the person matching your answer.
   Stand with your partner next to the wall until all questions and answers have been matched.
   When everyone has found a partner, the whole class listens to the questions and answers repeated by each pair. (Rusciolelli 1988)
   Countries and capitals can be matched in this activity, as well as in other activities that call for matching.
4. *Brainstorm some ideas in your head* that you might be able to use for a speech you present to the class introducing your family.
   Write your brainstormed ideas and list any props or visual aids you might use to make it more interesting.
   The later actual presentation in class is another overt activity. Wells (1990) suggests several ways in which students can be given the opportunity to use their creative skills in the classroom.
5. *Select a book, magazine, or newspaper and READ!*

> Large quantities of light, 'low-risk' reading, in which students are not held responsible for content, in which they can skip words without fear of missing anything that affects their grade, will result in vocabulary growth and overall language competence that will make reading the classics easier. (Krashen 1989: 455)

Here again, it is important that the teacher move around among the students as they read to keep them on task. Otherwise, the teacher should also be doing some free reading—not using this as an occasion to catch up on grading papers. This is a perfect opportunity to model the importance and pleasure of reading!

6. *Review* the verbs of motion you see listed on page 43. Look at the pictures you see on the chalkboard and think of the verbs that apply to each picture.

Think of some adverbs, prepositions of time and place, and other words that might be helpful in describing these pictures.
Go to the board and write an expression as you think of it.
Say to your neighbor as many things as you can about what is happening in the pictures. Reverse roles.
Combine with two other pairs to make a small circle. Ask a question about the pictures and toss a ball of paper or a bean bag to someone across the circle. After answering, that student tosses the ball to someone else, who will ask the next question. Students are reminded to ask the question before tossing the ball, in order to keep everybody alert. The student who can't think of an answer says, "I don't know. Do you?" and tosses the ball to another person. The use of this rejoinder allows everyone to respond in the target language. It may be necessary for someone to say, "I don't either. Will you please repeat the question?" These rejoinders may have been written on the board in advance, depending on the proficiency level of the class.

7. We have all experienced, in the early stages of our language learning, the helpless feeling of understanding what someone else said to us but being unable to think of an appropriate response. If it is a question, the obvious response is an answer. But what if someone makes a statement? Is an awkward silence the only possible reaction, or is it better to go on to another subject? Students are often faced with this dilemma unless we help them out. The following active participation strategy is helpful in this situation. Before introducing the activity, the teacher has written several reactions on the board, such as agreement, disagreement, uncertainty, surprise, disappointment, indifference, excitement, and so on.

- *Brainstorm* the possible responses you might make to another person. What are some different rejoinders you might use?
- *Go to the board and write* any response you can think of that might be appropriate in these situations.
- *Now think of a statement* you can make about a recent event, a feeling, or something you like or dislike.
- *Tell your neighbor* your idea and let him or her respond. Reverse roles.

If the teacher calls on different students to make their statements to the whole class, the others will offer an interesting variety of rejoinders.

Our goal, of course, is to encourage students to talk about themselves and their own experiences, using the content of the unit or chapter as a guide. Chastain (1971) reminds us that the teacher should be in the background as much as possible. "Too often, conversation sessions become listening comprehension sessions for the students as the teacher practices" (p. 217).

Teacher-talk can be minimized, even in the drill stages of beginning classes, by using name cards to call on the students for asking and answering questions. After all, the question is right there on the page in front of them, so why should the teacher repeat it eight times when students could be getting the speaking practice? They are motivated to speak if they know that a major part of their grade will be based on class participation.

Name cards can be made by cutting 3 × 5" cards in half and recording a point in pencil each time the student speaks. That card should be returned to an unpredictable place in the stack, maybe even near the top, so that students can't relax until twenty-seven more people have had a turn! The teacher can look through the cards after several days to see which students have spoken less than others and be sure to give them an opportunity during the next activity. Periodically the teacher records the points to be curved later into a speaking grade, erases the marks from the cards, and starts over. Voluntary student responses (questions, rejoinders, corrections, etc.) can be easily recorded on the seating chart and included in the speaking grade.

Valette (1978) points out that often in their hurry to express what they are thinking or feeling, students

> come out with constructions that reflect their native language, rather than the language they are trying to use. These students are usually able afterwards to point out many of their mistakes. What they need is not remedial grammar review but rather additional opportunities for free expression." (p. 91)

The active participation strategies described here provide opportunities students need for free expression. Their minds are actively involved as they think of ideas, brainstorm, and come up with topics for discussion. When sharing their thoughts with a partner or a small group, they are

expressing their ideas naturally, without threat of a grade, and learning to make themselves understood. As the teacher moves around among the groups, he or she can make a note of common errors to discuss with the class later. Students experience one little success after another, and these become steppingstones toward their goal of communicating freely in the second language.

Note

1. Videotape on "Active Participation" available from Phi Delta Kappa Professional Development Center, Indianapolis. According to Dr. Maas (1987), the average wait time for an answer is 2-3 seconds.

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5
Partner Work and Small-Group Work for Cooperative and Communicative Learning

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The following recommendations are excerpted from the list of suggestions for the proficiency-oriented classroom found in *German for Communication* (Green and Grittner 1990: 24–25).

> Do use a variety of teaching techniques.
>
> Don't fall into a repetitive, predictable pattern of instructional procedures.
>
> Do devise a lesson-planning format to ensure that the best possible learning environment is always provided.
>
> Don't rely solely on the textbook as the organizing basis for lessons.
>
> Do plan lessons that require students to use German to express their own thoughts and ideas.
>
> Don't rely too heavily on mechanical drills in which students repeat and manipulate grammatical forms they have learned.
>
> Do get students talking in German about their own lives, interests, and environment.

Don't limit the content of the German program to abstract data and impersonal facts.

Do plan activities that require extended discourse.

Don't focus exclusively on exercises that produce one-word or one-sentence responses.

Do conduct classes in German and design activities that encourage students to speak German in class.

Don't constantly fall back into English; discourage students from using English to communicate in class.

The suggestions reproduced here summarize many of the most basic tenets of today's communicative language classroom, but how is it possible to incorporate all these proposals into a daily lesson plan?

Partner work and small-group work allow the teacher to incorporate all these recommendations as well as maximize the short amount of time we have with our students. For years those involved in second language education have lamented the paultry three or four semesters we have at the university level, or one or two years at the high school level, to teach students enough skills to communicate in a new language. Working together in pairs or small groups allows each student far more opportunity to practice the vocabulary and language strategies that are presented in the whole-class situation.

The following paper begins with a brief summary of the literature on the subject of cooperative learning in the first-language setting and then incorporates ideas on partner work and group work in the context of the second-language classroom.

The term *cooperative learning* has recently become popularized in the area of second-language education. By *cooperative learning* we generally mean that the class is organized into groups of two to six students who fulfill a task cooperatively. The tasks are traditionally planned such that each group member has a specific role and/or information that needs to be shared in order to complete any given task. The activity and final product are the result of cooperation, and thus the reward structure is cooperative as well.

Models of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning first arose as a means of promoting academic achievement and ethnic integration in public schools. Considerable research has been conducted on the effects of small-group teaching, particularly at the grade school level (Bejarano 1987; Sharan 1980; Slavin 1980). A number of techniques have been developed in this setting and some of these ideas, such as cooperative reward structures, a noncompetitive atmosphere, and improved group relations can be useful in the second-language classroom. Early ideas regarding cooperative learning, however, such a DeVries's Teams-Games-Tournaments (TGT) or Slavin's Student Teams and Academic Divisions (STAD) often involve complicated procedures for grouping students or require a lengthier commitment of time than most second-language teachers can afford (Sharan 1980).

One technique, the "Jigsaw," which fosters both cooperation and peer tutoring, was developed by Aaronson et al. (1978). This technique has potential for both the first- and the second-language setting. In short, the material to be learned is divided into as many parts as there will be group members. Each student first acquires expertise in only one portion of the material given to the whole group. The students who have the same material form an "expert team" in which they master their common section and prepare to present that material to other classmates (Bejarano 1987). After students become "experts" at that material, they are sent back to work with other groupmates who, in the meantime, have become "experts" at other materials (the Jigsaw group). All students work together and are responsible for teaching their part to groupmates. When students have studied all portions of the material, they take individual quizzes, and thus everyone becomes responsible not only for their own individual learning but for that of their groupmates. The success of this technique comes from the teacher providing a set quantity of material to learn, a set task, and a set amount of time. In the second-language context this technique might work very well at more advanced levels by assigning "expert" groups to learn about different figures from a country's history, different cities, different festivals, and so forth.

Another technique, the Discussion Group, which originated outside of the second-language context, has been adapted for the EFL setting by Bejarano (1987). Briefly, the technique follows six stages: (1) choosing a

topic of interest, (2) forming interest groups, (3) using resources inside and outside the classroom, (4) producing a group report, (5) sharing the report with the class, and (6) evaluating the overall group product. Cooperation, attentive listening, active participation, and role-playing are all part of this advanced learning activity.

Benefits of Grouping Students

Why should the teacher make an effort to group students? After all, it would be possible to fulfill some of the recommendations for a proficiency-oriented classroom, listed earlier, through other means. It would be possible, for example, to have students express personal thoughts through individual written assignments or encourage second-language use through students' prepared oral presentations. Every technique has its advantages and its place in the classroom. The whole-class technique in which the teacher stands in front of the room and presents material is most traditional and appropriate for the presentation of new material, for example. What can group work offer the second-language teacher?

Grouping students helps the teacher develop a friendly atmosphere in the classroom (Baker 1976; Long and Porter 1985). It allows students to get to know one another and develop a sense of group camaraderie and group rapport (Homstad 1986; Snyder and DeSelms 1982). Such rapport leads to a more relaxed atmosphere, one that helps lower students' affective filter (Krashen 1982). This lowered affective filter, or lowered anxiety, provides students with an increased willingness to talk and participate in the second language (Sadow 1983; Ur 1981). This chain reaction continues as increased willingness to participate leads, clearly, to an increase in quantity of student practice and, therefore, less teacher-talk (Bejarano 1987). Nerenz and Knop (1982) found that in pair work, students spoke more than eight times as often as teachers and in small-group work, students spoke almost four times as often as the teacher. These numbers certainly do not reflect the amount of speech produced by students who may only have the chance to answer a question two or three times in an hour of whole-class instruction.

It follows, then, that since teachers are able to hear so little spoken language from their students in the traditional setting, it would be difficult if not impossible to truly monitor progress in extended discourse. With

partner work or small-group work, the teacher is able to listen in as students speak more and use a greater variety of language strategies. It is easier, then, for the teacher to monitor each student's progress and individualize help if necessary, and it also allows patterns of difficulties throughout the whole class to be assessed and instruction altered to improve matters (Baker 1976).

As students speak more, their attention is more clearly focused on the task than might be the case during whole-class instruction, during which their minds may tend to wander (Nerenz and Knop 1982). This increase in quantity of practice also allows students to develop more confidence in their skills as they not only have more opportunity to use the language itself but are able to reinforce their understanding of forms and content through explanation to other students (Baker 1976; Gonzalez 1982).

As noted earlier, it is important to use a variety of teaching techniques. Students at any level will be motivated by the change of pace offered by group work (Gonzalez 1982; Long and Porter 1985). This context provides an opportunity to express personal thoughts and opinions, which is not only interesting, and therefore motivating, but such an opportunity is essential in the proficiency-oriented classroom for which teachers must now develop activities for "real-life" language use.

Partner work and small-group work can be employed to practice a full range of language strategies. Teachers can ask students to turn, for one minute, to their neighbor and practice a certain sound, a phrase, a greeting, and so forth. Tasks can range, however, from repetition to meaningful exchanges to communicative activities. The more realistic use of language offered by communicative activities is the goal of teachers in today's more proficiency-oriented classrooms (Baker 1976). Lengthier exchanges also allow for practice of language skills such as hypothesizing, generalizing, disagreeing, summarizing, and clarifying (Long and Porter 1985).

Exchanges in which students engage in extended discourse is not only more realistic as far as speaking is concerned but also in terms of their listening skills (Gonzalez 1982). Only in very specialized situations does a group of people sit and listen to one person speaking at length. More often we speak and listen in small groups, with background noise, false starts, and two or more people taking turns in conversation.

Taking turns is but one discourse strategy that can be practiced in activities during which students engage in extended discourse. Students are able to practice questioning, adjusting the speed of the conversation, circumlocution, and asking for repetition (Gonzalez 1982; Homstad 1986; Long and Porter 1985). These skills are not only necessary for real language usage outside of the classroom but they allow the language learner to negotiate meaning (Long and Porter 1985). Negotiation in nonnative exchanges is a useful activity because it allows the learners to manipulate input. When input is negotiated, the conversation can then proceed with minimal confusion and the input is more meaningful to the learners because of their involvement in the negotiation process (Long and Porter 1985). Krashen (1982) maintains that only comprehensible input, that is, language at and just beyond the level of the language learner, can be helpful in acquiring a language. Students will develop an interlanguage, that is, a form of the target language that, although not perfect, does contain its own rules and is understood by the students as they communicate with each other. Interlanguage comes to resemble the target language more closely as learning progresses. The more communicative activities also not only lend themselves to increased practice in discourse strategies but also allow for more purposeful communication. While students are engaged in a discussion, debate, or problem-solving activity, not only is the language "real," but the need to communicate shifts the focus away from language forms to language use (Sadow 1983).

Cooperative learning tasks allow students to develop a greater sense of responsibility and accountability for their own learning as well as for that of the group. Tasks assigned to partners and small groups, when properly prepared, create the necessity for each person to contribute to the whole. The product, which is produced by the group, is then graded as a group project and not as the work of individuals. Students become aware that others are depending on their effort and cooperation.

Nerenz and Knop (1982) found that students spend three-quarters of their time in large-group settings. Given the many advantages that partner work and small-group work can bring to learning, why is it not used on a more regular, daily basis within many second-language classrooms?

One reason is that some believe that the groups will revert to their first language. Nerenz and Knop (1982) found that target language use did decrease to 80 percent during less teacher-directed activities as opposed

to whole-class instruction. The communicative nature of that 80 percent is a very positive aspect, however. During whole-class instruction students' target language use did rise above 80 percent, yet there was a striking decrease in the communicative nature of the speech. Students involved in whole-class instruction were far more likely to use language for mere repetition of form rather than for personalized, real-life language use.

Still others are concerned that students will be hearing and using incorrect forms. As noted above, the interlanguage that students develop improves with time and gradually becomes a form more and more like the target language. There has been no evidence to support the notion that hearing or using incorrect language forms inevitably results in fossilization. Although students cannot offer each other completely accurate grammatical input, "learners can offer each other genuine communicative practice, including the negotiation for meaning that is believed to aid in second language acquisition" (Long and Porter 1985). Pica and Doughty (1985) found, in fact, that students perform with the same level of grammatical accuracy in unsupervised group work as in whole-class instruction. Bruton and Samuda (1980) found that students are more likely to correct lexical errors in group work and that the learners almost never "miscorrect" during unsupervised group work.

It is possible, too, that students could spend an inordinate amount of unsupervised time "off-task." Students, however, are frequently not engaged actively even during whole-class instruction as they wait for other students to answer, as the teacher takes attendance or as their minds simply wander. Nerenz and Knop (1982) found that students, indeed, are off-task more often in small groups than in whole-class instruction. Fully one-third of their time was spent waiting (although these authors do not agree that this has to be the case when student activities are properly planned). During pair activities students were observed on-task 78 percent of the time, about 10 percent higher than during whole-class instruction. Again, the increase in real-language use and the positive environment that pair and small-group work create seem worth the price of students not being on-task 100 percent of the time.

Strasheim (1972) concluded that many teachers had reservations about grouping students because they identify good teaching with good discipline and order in the classroom. The idea of rearranging seating and losing that center of attention can be discomforting. When partner work

and small-group work is well planned, with specific tasks and time limits, then there is far less opportunity for students to be engaged in first-language use or off-task activities.

Differing Roles of Students and Teacher

There is a need to adapt to the new roles that teachers and students will play during small-group activities. In whole-group instruction the teacher stands in front of the class and is the center of attention. He/she is the disseminator of information and the immediate judge of performance. Meanwhile the students act as passive recipients of that information. They manipulate forms and respond briefly to the teacher's questions.

When partner and small-group activities are employed in the classroom, the teacher takes on the role of facilitator, diagnostician, listener, consultant, resource person, participator, monitor, and helper (Baker 1976; Bejarano 1987). The student becomes far more actively involved. Students act as communicators in a wide range of situations, as helpers, teachers, and learners.

Guidelines for Developing Activities

In order for students to stay on-task and for the teacher to stay in control of the classroom, a number of basic guidelines should be followed when preparing partner and small-group activities:

1. Be certain that the small-group activity fits into the overall lesson plan. There should be a reason for placing students in groups to work together. Make sure that group work can best accomplish what you want them to learn. For example, you may introduce new material in the whole-class situation and then pair students up for brief practice of questions and answers and return to the whole-class activity. By fitting the activity into the overall lesson plan, it is most likely that students will be prepared with the proper vocabulary and skills to accomplish the task.
2. Be certain the activity is well defined, that is, you know what role you and the students will play, what you expect the students to learn, and how you want to evaluate their work.

3. Create an activity that forces each student to contribute. Students should not engage in an activity in which they find themselves grouped with other students and yet are working independently.
4. Set up clearly defined time limits and stick to them. It is better to plan too little time for an activity than too much. With time to spare, students can easily find themselves off-task.
5. Make certain that the students understand the time limit, their assignment, the expected outcome and the way in which you will evaluate their work.
6. Only after an explanation of the activity is it advisable to place students into their groups. It is very difficult to regain their full attention once they are in groups facing different directions, making noise, moving desks, etc.
7. The teacher's time is best spent moving among the students. Group activities give the teacher the opportunity to monitor progress, give encouragement, and act as a guide.
8. Inform students when the announced time limit is reached and evaluate their work. Keep in mind that this evaluation can be a very brief and informal check, but if students receive any grade, it should be a group grade in order to foster a sense of cooperation.
9. Plan a sensible follow-up activity so that the work generated by the group activity is not simply dropped.

Possible Grouping Techniques

Step 6 above suggests placing students into groups after a clear explanation of the activity is given. The following suggestions may help the teacher find new ways to group students. Keep in mind that it is best to change groups from one activity to the next so that students have the opportunity to meet and work with as many of their classmates as possible.

1. *Interest groups* are particularly useful for lengthier projects such as the Discussion Group Technique noted earlier.
2. *Ability groups*

   Homogeneous grouping has been the most traditional grouping arrangements, particularly in first-language settings. Baker (1976) claims that such grouping allows each student to work at an

optimal pace, since the task every group would receive depends on its ability. The greatest drawback, of course, is the feeling of inferiority that can develop with students placed in "slower" groups.

Heterogeneous grouping allows the teacher to place together students of varying abilities on any given task. Students will not feel that they are constantly relegated to "slow" groups and, most importantly, stronger students can help the weaker students, thereby reinforcing their own learning while the weaker students profit from the help of a classmate in a more relaxed setting.

3. *Random grouping* is beneficial in that the students are randomly placed together, which they find to be most fair. Possibilities for random grouping include (Sadow 1983; Snyder and DeSelms 1982):
   a. counting off
   b. grouping by birthday, last digit of students' phone numbers, height, major, hobby, astrological sign, etc. These criteria are especially effective since students then have the added communicative activity of finding their partner(s).
   c. placing names in a hat and having students draw
   d. turning to a neighbor
   e. putting a number of sets of vocabulary words in a box, two or four to a set (the sets might be color names, days of the week, majors etc.), having students choose a word from the box, and finding partners according to who drew from the same set.
4. *Topic driven grouping* can be arranged by either the teacher or the students. It may be necessary, depending on the activity, to group a male and female together to role play or two males together etc.

Sample Activities

The following activities are just a small number that have been proven to work well in the classroom, both at the secondary and at the university level. The three sample activities provided here have been used in lower-level language classes. Discussion groups and lengthier open-ended projects might be better used in the more advanced classes so that students are not required to move too far beyond their present second-language skills, a situation that often results in first-language use. A

particularly good source of ideas for partner work in the German classroom can be found in *Wechselspiel* published by Langenscheidt. Omaggio (1986) also summarizes a number of pair and small-group activities useful for all second-language classrooms.

Activity I: Planning a Meal

This activity is designed for pairs of students. The first student receives a list of all the necessary foods and amounts needed for a meal that is being planned. The second student receives a list of goods and the amounts already available in the pantry. Student One reads the first ingredient and amount and Student Two finds out if they have that ingredient and if they have enough on hand. Together the two students then draw up a written shopping list of foods that they need to buy. All pairs in the class receive the same recipe and list of foods in the pantry, which makes the follow-up discussion much easier. It is always fun to add a twist that makes them think a bit more. Here is an example translated into English that could be used in any language.

Sheet for Student One

Tonight you are making a tomato salad, cheeseburgers, and french fries and for dessert, bananas with whipped cream. Do you have everything you need? Ask your partner.

For the *tomato salad* you need:

550g tomatoes
salt
pepper
3 tablespoons oil
1–2 tablespoons vinegar

For the *cheeseburgers and french fries* you need:

375g hamburger
5 rolls
1 egg
1 onion
4 slices cheddar cheese
1 kilo potatoes
ketchup
mustard
paprika
oil
salt and pepper

For the *bananas with whipped cream* you need:

2 tablespoons butter	40g sugar
4 bananas	40g almonds

Sheet for Student Two

You have the following foods in the pantry:

salt	1 brown banana
vinegar	500g sugar
3 onions	500g butter
2 rolls (one is turning green)	apple juice
paprika	coffee
200g Swiss cheese	200g old hamburger
1 liter milk	200g old roast beef
ketchup	

Write a shopping list at the bottom of this sheet.

We need:

Notice that by the addition of words like "old" or "brown" in reference to foods, different groups may choose to buy new amounts of that food or use the old ingredients they have on hand, so answers will differ slightly, making the follow-up more interesting.

Activity II: Train Schedules

After a discussion of train travel and what schedules look like, this is a good, quick pair activity that simply gives students practice at asking the proper questions, telling time according to the twenty-four-hour clock, and reading a train schedule. Again, the questions have been translated into English but could be used in any second-language class.

Sheet for Student One

You and a friend are planning a trip from Hamburg to Aachen. Ask the following questions about the trip there.

1. When do we leave Hamburg?
2. When do we arrive in Aachen?

3. How long will we be in Osnabrück?
4. When do we arrive in Cologne?
5. How much does a ticket cost?

Sheet for Student Two

You and a friend are planning a trip from Hamburg to Aachen. You have the train schedule.

Hamburg Hauptbahnhof –Aachen

an	*ab*	
	8 12	Hamburg
8 45	8 55	Bremen
9 50	10 05	Osnabrück
10 30	10 40	Münster
11 15	11 20	Dortmund
12 03	12 14	Köln
12 41		Aachen

As a follow-up activity, since each pair receives the same set of sheets, I generally call on Student One from each group to tell me the answer to the questions so that they will get practice telling time on the twenty-four hour clock. Notice that nowhere on either of the sheets can they find the answer to the last question. This keeps them on their toes and usually leads to another brief discussion of train costs versus cars or buses.

Activity III: Describe and Unscramble

This activity work well for small groups of three students. Take a comic strip of about eight to ten frames in length, photocopy it, and cut it apart. Student One receives the first frame and every odd-numbered frame thereafter (placed on a sheet and numbered 1, 3, 5, etc.). Student Two receives the second frame and every even-numbered frame thereafter (also placed on a sheet and numbered 2, 4, 6, etc.). Student Three receives the same number of cards as there are cartoon frames. Each card has a brief one-sentence description of what is happening in each frame. Students One and Two take turns describing what comes next in each frame and Student Three has the challenge of taking each of their verbal descriptions and matching it with the written description on each

card that corresponds most closely. After the cards are put in order, the three students together check their work. As a follow-up it is a good idea to choose students from various groups to recreate verbally what happened in the cartoon—which allows students to find out there are many different ways to describe the same scene—and then discuss the proper order of the cards. This is fine oral and listening practice for students.

Conclusion

Cooperative learning through partner work and small-group work offers a number of benefits not possible through traditional whole-class activities. Both the quantity and quality of language is increased as students become more willing to speak in a relaxed atmosphere and learners are presented with opportunities for extended discourse. With well-planned, well-defined group activities the teacher is able to maintain control while moving from the center of attention. Students become communicators, helpers, and authors, while the teachers serve as guides, monitors, and editors. Group work cannot replace whole-class instruction, but it must be an essential part of every lesson plan in a communicative, proficiency-oriented classroom.

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6
Are They Learning What We're Teaching? Assessing Language Skills in the Classroom

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Introduction

A decade has passed since the profession entered the era in which the attempt was made to emphasize the development of students' functional language ability through the so-called "proficiency movement." In 1981 the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) began its proficiency projects. Many state departments of education developed guidelines to help schools in designing "proficiency-oriented" curricula. Teacher inservice workshops were held and local schools developed their own curricular documents. Textbook publishers joined in by developing materials that they claimed would aid the teacher in meeting proficiency-oriented goals and objectives. Many teachers changed and adapted their teaching strategies with the hope that their students would achieve the skills that the proficiency-oriented curriculum and materials emphasized. But a very important question remained and still remains: Does the teacher really know if students are achieving what is intended by the newly designed curriculum, materials, and instructional goals? Based on the types of assessment procedures, test examples, and professional help in designing classroom assessment strategies that teachers have had at their disposal, the answer to this question is probably "no."

Need for Assessment Examples

Although the work on the national level, i.e., the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines and the development of the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), is generally considered as having had a great impact on foreign language education, very little impact is apparent on the day to day operation of the foreign language classroom, especially in the area of assessment. It has been pointed out by Shohamy (1990) that an "important issue is the naive belief that the introduction of the OPI and the guidelines, per se, would create a change while overlooking the most important agent of change—the classroom teacher" (p. 4). States have made an attempt to bridge this gap by developing guidelines, but very few have addressed the assessment issue in a way that is practical and useful to the classroom teacher. Henning (1989) advises that "Sample tests should be given to new teachers with clear explanations of appropriate kinds of tests for levels where the method has been found appropriate. Teachers should be allowed to see samples of acceptable student performance with valid tests that have been applied in the past to similar students" (p. 10).

The Indiana Project

An attempt to address this situation is being made in Indiana through an assessment project that grew out of the development of the state curriculum guidelines. In 1983 the Indiana Department of Education initiated a project that was to consist of three major components: (1) a set of guidelines to aid schools in developing a proficiency-oriented curriculum, (2) a set of sample instructional materials to help teachers in implementing such a curriculum, and (3) a battery of test items designed to serve as prototypes in evaluating students' ability in achieving the learning outcomes described in the curriculum guidelines. The first two components have been completed, and the third is still in the process of development.

The purpose of this paper will be to describe the development of the third component. To do this, however, a brief overview of the characteristics of the Indiana guidelines is necessary. The Indiana guidelines are unique in that the attempt was made to describe desirable learning outcomes (called communicative competencies) in terms of their cultural contexts in real life. The competencies were organized under

broad cultural topics describing language use in simulated or real-life situations. As Bartz and Strasheim (1986) pointed out, "the guidelines define the proficiency to be achieved at each level of instruction by specifying 25 to 30 communicative competencies that the student will need in order to function as a user of the target language" (p. 56).

Each communicative competence is a statement describing the desired performance of a student, usually made up of three parts:

1. The context:	Given a chart that includes information about a specific hotel,
2. The student condition:	the student will listen to a conversation between the hotel clerk and a tourist,
3. The student performance:	circling on his/her chart the things that will be included in the price the tourist will pay.[1]

A competence gives focus to instruction as well as the mode of evaluation.

Because the competencies describe student performance in terms that are generally measurable, developing test items based on them was a relatively easy task. Since in many cases, however, they describe a performance in several modalities, including a great number that describe performance in the speaking skill, problems in scoring and administration were anticipated.

In spite of these problems, it was felt that if teachers are to implement a proficiency-oriented curriculum based on the guidelines, it was very important that they be given help and guidance in assessing student performance.

Development of the Assessment Component

The process of developing the assessment component was begun in the summer of 1988, at which time three teams of teachers in each language (French, German, and Spanish) met to begin the writing of test items based on the guidelines. After a week of orientation and training, the teachers had five weeks to complete the item writing phase. The goal

was to have four to six items developed for each communicative competence. After this was accomplished, items were refined and three versions of the test were developed for Level I and Level II in each language. Time and limited resources did not allow the development of items for Levels III and IV. Based on a survey of foreign language teachers in Indiana, it was determined which competencies were considered a priority for each level. Items for these competencies are contained in each version of the test along with additional items unique to each test version. This would allow teachers to choose which version would be most appropriate for their situation. Versions of the tests, although they are called forms A, B, and C, are not intended to be equivalent forms.

At this point, it should again be emphasized that the purpose of the tests is not an external statewide assessment, but rather an aid for teachers in assessing their students' ability in achieving the competencies defined in the state guidelines. Neither are they "pure" proficiency tests as generally defined, but rather a combination of test characteristics is evident. As Byrnes (1989) has pointed out, "what really takes place with instructed learners is not proficiency-testing but communicatively-oriented, curriculum-based achievement testing" (p. 21). It could, however, be argued that the Indiana tests contain some characteristics of proficiency assessment in that they are designed to evaluate students' ability to function in a cultural/communicative context. This reflects at least one definition of proficiency measurement as defined by Clark (1978), "the extent to which the individual is capable of utilizing his language knowledge of and facility in the language to accomplish some desired receptive or communicative purpose" (p. 16).

Actually the tests contain characteristics of at least two other types of measurement, (1) achievement tests, in that they are designed to evaluate specific content—that defined by the guidelines—and (2) diagnostic tests, in that they should provide teachers with information that will help them to determine where students need additional instruction, practice, or remediation. Most importantly, however, they will serve as valid classroom assessment models that will help teachers to determine whether their students are really achieving what is hoped they will achieve as a result of a proficiency-oriented curriculum and of proficiency-oriented instruction.

Design of the Items and Instruments

As was pointed out above, items were developed for Levels I and II in French, German, and Spanish. Three test versions were compiled for each level, producing a total of six instruments for each language. Each instrument is divided into three parts, a reading/writing section, a listening section, and a speaking section. Examples of items are given below along with the communicative competence from the guidelines on which the item is based.[2]

Level I—Reading/Writing—Spanish

Communicative Competence

Given two or three items found in six to eight different kinds of shops, stores, or markets in a Spanish-speaking country, the student will identify the shop, store or market by name.

Test Item:

Doña Elvira is giving her servant girl instruction about making certain purchases. Complete the dialogue in your answer booklet by writing in Spanish the name of each shop Lucía will visit.

Doña Elvira: Lucía, quiero preparar rosbif para el almuerzo. Necesito dos kilos de carne de res.

Lucía: Muy bien, señora. Voy a _____.

Doña Elvira: También necesito una docena de panecillos para el desayuno y una barra (pan francés).

Lucía: Sí, señora. Voy _____.

Doña Elvira: Otra cosa, Lucía; los niños necesitan media docena de peras, seis bananas, y medio kilo de uvas.

Lucía: Entonces puedo pasar por _____. Señora, no hay ni leche ni crema en la refrigeradora.

Doña Elvira: Pues entonces necesitas comprar dos litros de leche y medio litro de crema.

Lucía: Está bien. Voy a _____ antes de volver a casa.

Level I—Listening—French

Communicative Competence

Given a chart that includes information about a specific hotel, the student will listen to a conversation between the hotel clerk and a tourist,

circling on his/her chart the things that will be included in the price the tourist will pay.

Test Item:

While you are in a hotel in Bordeaux you overhear a conversation between a traveler and the manager. Look at the copy of the hotel bill in your answer booklet. Put a check in front of each item that you hear the manager say. You do not need to write the price. You will hear the conversation twice.

In answer booklet:

1. __ la chambre à un lit
2. __ la chambre à deux lits
3. __ le petit déjeuner
4. __ le bain
5. __ la douche
6. __ le téléphone

Student hears:

Traveler: S'il vous plaît, monsieur, je voudrais payer. Je vais partir.

Manager: Oui, monsieur.

Traveler: Combien est-ce que je vous dois?

Manager: Bon. Je vous explique. Une chambre à deux lits coûte 500 F. Les petits déjeuners, 50 F. Vous avez fait un coup de téléphone qui vaut 15 F. Ça fait 565 F., monsieur.

Level I—Speaking—German

Communicative Competence:

The student role plays a situation in which he/she is a customer, doing the following: (a) inquiring as to the cost of a specific item; (b) inquiring as to the item's availability in other sizes, etc.; (c) asking where he/she may find a totally unrelated item.

Test Item:

You are doing a favor for your host mother in Germany. She needs to buy a present for her daughter's birthday. She wants you to get a sweater

for her. You walk into the store, you find that you are in the cosmetics department and do the following:

1. At the first tone ask that saleslady where the sweaters are.
2. At the second tone ask the saleslady in the sweater department what colors they have.
3. At the third tone ask the same saleslady if they have size 38.
4. At the fourth tone ask her how much the sweater you want costs.

Level II—Reading/Writing—German

Communicative Competence:

The student will write the appropriate salutations and closings for letters to each of the following: (a) a friend; (b) a hotel; (c) a new pen pal; (d) his/her teacher; and (e) his/her host family in a German-speaking country.

Test Item:

You have an assignment to write letters to the people listed below. In your answer booklet write what would be the appropriate German salutations (dear...) and closings (sincerely...) for each letter.

1. deine Freundin, Gabi Werle
2. deine Lehrerin, Frau Hilde Müller
3. dein Brieffreund, Jörg Dürer
4. deine Gastfamilie, Familie Ralf Kurz in der BRD
5. der Gastwirt, Herr Schmidt, beim "Gasthaus zum Lahntal"

Level II—Listening—Spanish

Communicative Competence:

The student role plays a conversation with a friend in which they discuss what they want to do for their life's work (nurse, pilot, baker, etc.).

Test Item:

You are in Guatemala. The television is on but you are in another room and can only hear the TV. Your friend keeps changing channels. Listen to each passage and identify the occupation of the person speaking in each TV program. Select your answer from the list below and write the number of the occupation in your answer booklet next to the letter of the program. You will hear each passage twice.

1. abogado
2. bibliotecario
3. cocinero
4. enfermero
5. ingeniero
6. peluquero
7. zapatero

Student hears:

Program A: Buenos días. Hoy vamos a preparar paella. Es una comida especial de España. ¡Es muy sabrosa!

Program B: ¿Cómo se siente Ud. hoy? Sr. Fernandez. El médico dice que es necesario cambiar la medicina. Tome Ud. esta medicina con un vaso de agua.

Program C: Sra. Blanco, aquí está el libro que Ud. quiere. Alguien lo puso con los libros de la historia en vez de ponerlo en su propio lugar. Ud. tiene que devolverlo en tres semanas.

Program D: ¡Hola Doña María! Voy a lavarle el pelo antes de cortárselo. Desea Ud. cambiar el estilo hoy?

Level II—Speaking—French

Communicative Competence:

Given a brief oral description of a traveler he/she has met on a train in a French-speaking country, the student will introduce him/herself and initiate a conversation on some general topic (the weather, the traveler's profession, the length of the trip, the traveler's destination, etc.).

Test Item:

You have just boarded the train in Avignon and are headed toward Paris, your final destination. Your seat partner is an elderly gentleman. At the tone, introduce yourself, and then ask him what his name is and where he lives.

These examples serve as a brief illustration of item types; however, they should not necessarily be viewed as typical items. One of the lessons learned from this experience has been that in order to maintain some face validity, item types will vary greatly in format with the nature of the communicative competence. Space here does not allow for a more comprehensive set of illustrations.

Administration and Scoring

A field test of these instruments will be conducted during the school year of 1990–91. The major purpose of the field test will be (1) to determine feasible and practical methods of administration, especially for the speaking section of the test, and (2) to develop scoring procedures for the speaking and writing components. It is envisioned at this time that the speaking section of the tests will have recorded student responses. The test items for the speaking and listening sections are recorded on audiotape with appropriate pauses for the student response. Student responses will need to be recorded individually or, if a language laboratory is available, groups of students could be recorded simultaneously. It is, of course, possible for the teacher to administer the speaking section face to face with each student.

The field test will also serve to develop a scoring procedure for both the writing and the speaking items. Writing and speech samples will be collected and rater training workshops will be held to determine method of scoring, to develop rating scales, and to produce scoring guides with training tapes. The rating scales described in the guidelines will undoubtedly be used as a basis for further development of scales for these test items.[3]

Conclusions and Recommendations

Many questions still remain unanswered concerning this assessment project. Questions of validity and reliability are, of course, important and will need to be addressed. Whether standard psychometric tests and procedures are relevant or applicable or even possible in classroom assessment procedures of this type is also still an open question. But more important will be the question of whether this type of assessment will ultimately improve foreign language learning. This, of course, should always be the major goal of the profession regardless of what facet of the process of language learning is being addressed. The classroom teacher not only needs help in achieving this goal, but must be convinced that the effort involved in developing proficiency-oriented assessment will contribute to the realization of higher achievement in language learning. State-developed examples of items and evaluation instruments as de-

scribed here, as useful as they might be, will not necessarily convince teachers to develop and administer assessment procedures on a frequent and regular basis. Some general assessment strategies need to be developed that teachers can apply to a variety of situations and purposes. Four such situations are generally possible in a classroom setting:

1. Evaluation in groups
2. Single-student evaluation with whole-class involvement
3. Evaluation in pairs
4. Single-student evaluation (interview)

Below are some examples of possible assessment strategies teachers could use; again, the specific assessment item is based on a communicative competence from the Indiana guidelines.

1. Evaluation in Groups

   Communicative Competence:
   Given an imaginary visit by a foreign student, the student will "introduce" each member of his/her family, giving at least one fact about each.

   Suggested Procedure:
   a. Divide class into groups of six to eight students seated in a circle.
   b. Give each student a card on which is described the task he/she must perform. Example: Sitting to your left is your grandmother/father. You will introduce him/her to the person to your right, who is a foreign student visiting your school.
   c. While the teacher listens to the students perform their tasks, he/she uses the Structural Accuracy of Communication rating Scale to evaluate each students' performance. This scale was one of several developed for the Indiana proficiency guides (Strasheim and Bartz 1986: 41):

      General Definition: Structural accuracy of communication refers to the linguistic (grammatical) correctness of the student's statements.

Scale Level Definitions	Points
Very few statements were structurally correct.	1
Many statements were structurally correct.	3
Most or all statements were structurally correct.	5

2. Single-Student Evaluation with Whole-Class Involvement

   Communicative Competence:
   Given a series of times and days of the week, the student will explain what he/she normally does at that time.

   Suggested Procedure:
   a. Slips of paper with times and days of the week are put into a container.
   b. Students come to the front of the classroom and draw one (or more) slips and explain to the class what they normally do at that time of day.
   c. The rest of the class is required to keep track of each of student's response by taking notes.
   d. Again use the Structural Accuracy of Communication Rating Scale to evaluate student's performance.

3. Evaluation with Students in Pairs

   Communicative Competence:
   The student role-plays a situation in which he/she is a customer doing the following:
   a. Inquiring about the cost of an item
   b. Inquiring about the item's availability in other sizes, colors, price ranges, etc.
   c. Asking where he/she may find a totally unrelated item

   Suggested Procedure:
   a. The teacher prepares two sets of identical index cards on which are pasted pictures of items one can purchase in a department store with information such as price, color, size, etc.
   b. One student plays the role of the customer, one the role of the clerk, and each receives a set of the index cards.
   c. The "customer" picks a card from the customer pack and describes the item, giving the name of the item, color, size, and

other features. The "clerk" must find the item in the clerk pack of cards.

d. The teacher evaluates the "customer's" performance using the Comprehensibility Rating Scale. This scale is also one from the Indiana proficiency guidelines (Strasheim and Bartz 1986: 41):

General Definition: Comprehensibility refers to the ability of the student to convey meaning and to make himself or herself understood.

Scale Level Definitions	Points
Comprehended some phrases or word clusters.	1
Comprehended short, simple sentences.	3
Comprehended all of what student said or wrote.	5

4. Single-Student Evaluation (Interview)

Communicative Competence:
Given a predicament of some kind (a lost piece of clothing, broken heel on a shoe, a tear in trousers, etc.), the student, in discussion with his/her native guide (the teacher):

a. Explains what the problem is
b. Finds out where he/she must go to buy a replacement
c. Determines what metric size he/she needs
d. Finds out the approximate cost

Suggested Procedure:

a. An interview is conducted with each student, with the teacher playing the role of the native guide and the student playing the role of the visitor to the foreign country.
b. The student is given a list of "predicaments." He/she chooses one and explains what the problem is, etc.
c. The teacher uses the Structural Accuracy of Communication Rating Scale to evaluate the student.

Examples such as these provide formats for various assessment needs.

It is important, however, that the test formulas be derived from procedures and techniques used for practice in the classroom. Students should never be faced with a testing situation that is completely unfamiliar to them.

Are they learning what we're teaching? We will only know the answer if we strive to design valid assessment procedures that give students the opportunity to display their ability to use the language as our curricular documents, instructional goals, and materials have proclaimed they should be able to do. Such assessment must take top priority in the classroom if it is to lead to better language learning. External assessment for purposes of placement, certification, graduation, entrance requirements, etc. certainly has an important role. But classroom assessment becomes the message we send to our students in which we tell them what language learning is really all about. Students always know what our goals are by what is tested and by how we test. Our task is to design classroom assessment that not only gives us valid information on student achievement, but communicates to students the goals and objectives we profess as important in today's foreign language classroom.

Notes

1. For a more complete description of the guidelines, see Bartz and Strasheim (1986).
2. The test items come from the field test instruments, copyright pending by the Indiana Department of Education.
3. For a copy of the rating scales see Bartz and Strasheim (1986), pp. 59–61.

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Section III

Planning Strategies

7
Authentic Videos in the Foreign Language Classroom

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With the traditional focus on grammar shifting to attention on proficiency, the inclusion of edited and unedited *authentic foreign language videos* (AFLVs) has become in recent years a growing part of the core curriculum in foreign language teaching, but if students are to become increasingly sophisticated consumers of the electronic media, a proficiency orientation demands more effective selection and use of video technology in the 1990s.

The Theoretical Aspects: To Use or Not To Use?

Where state-of-the-art video technology was yesterday's illusive vision it is today's vivid reality. Videocassette players and television sets have become standard items in almost every household, and one can travel within seconds across the world via the touch of a satellite-dish button. Videodisc players and laser-beam technology are beginning to set the stage for our journey into the twenty-first century. It would be pedagogically and methodologically unsound *not* to concentrate our efforts on providing language students access to a medium that makes foreign languages and cultures sound less "foreign" and makes geographical, political, economic, and social boundaries less distant.

AFLVs versus Textbooks

Yet still in many foreign language classrooms today, "covering the textbook" seems to be rather the iron rule of thumb than the overriding exception. If AFLVs are indeed for teachers *so* "time consuming" and for students *so* "difficult to understand," as it is often argued, why bother to use AFLVs in the classroom at all? Why select, preview, and divide the visual and auditory components of the video into logical and manageable units when you can have students conjugate five more verbs in French? Why prepare and assign specific viewing/listening tasks for students that recycle and expand linguistic functions and sociocultural contexts when you can teach the subjunctive in Spanish? Why "waste valuable textbook time" designing exercises and activities that will be attractive to students' audiovisual senses and viewing interests when you can teach the adjective endings in German instead?

The answer to these questions lies within the pedagogical and methodological potential AFLVs have in the teaching and learning environment if used properly and wisely. Expressed more precisely, unedited authentic video, that is, video programs produced by natives for natives, enables students of foreign languages to encounter and experience the "naturalness" of the language and culture; there is no other medium like video technology that can combine simultaneously the dimensions of sight and sound. On the *visual level* AFLVs offer students unprecedented opportunities to see a number of diverse nonlinguistic elements of communication between different age groups and sexes such as gestures, physical distance, and facial expressions. On the *sound level* AFLVs offer an array of different accents and dialects, colloquial expressions and idioms, speech patterns and rarely used words, juxtaposed with an authentic background and a genuine atmosphere. It stands to reason, then, that AFLVs offer more clues for comprehension of the message and the sociocultural context than any other type of authentic materials.

Types of AFLVs

But long before we concern ourselves with discovering ways of enabling students to better access and comprehend the content and context of the AFLV, we should direct our attention to establishing

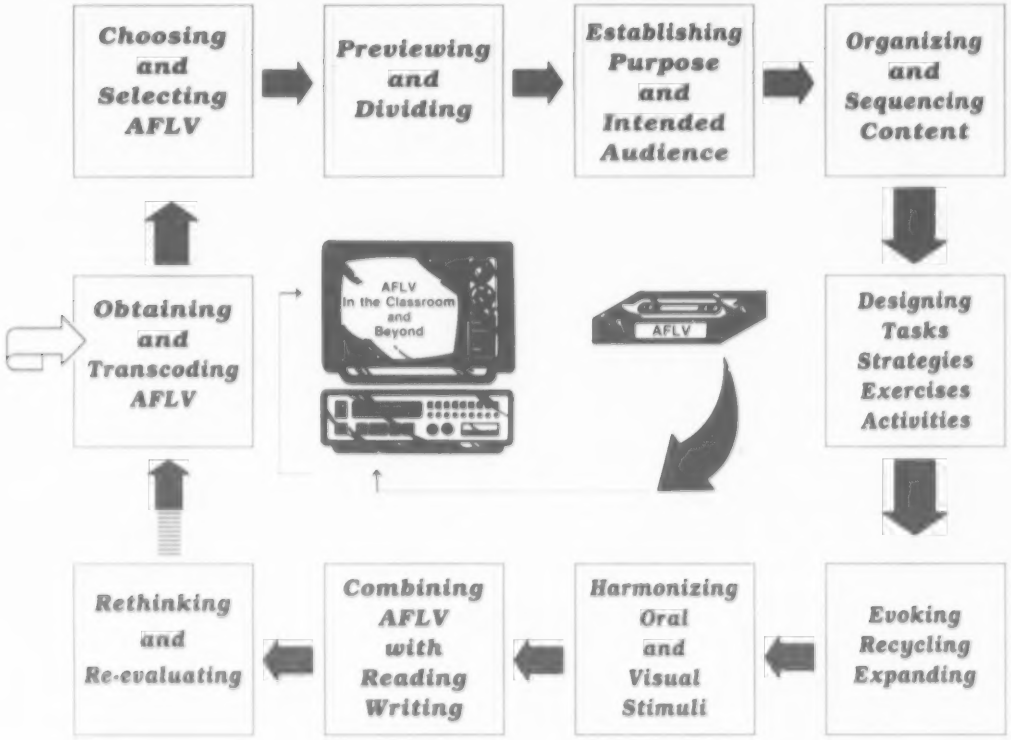
Choosing and Selecting AFLV
Previewing and Dividing
Establishing Purpose and Intended Audience
Organizing and Sequencing Content
Designing Tasks Strategies Exercises Activities
Evoking Recycling Expanding
Harmonizing Oral and Visual Stimuli
Combining AFLV with Reading Writing
Rethinking and Re-evaluating
Obtaining and Transcoding AFLV
AFLV In the Classroom and Beyond
AFLV

Figure 1. A 10-Step Guide to Effective Video-Based Teaching

guidelines and criteria for selecting and using AFLVs that complement and challenge students' abilities, styles of learning, and levels of proficiency (see figure 7-1). Generally speaking, there are three types of video programs available to language professionals:

1. Commercially prepared videos on language and culture, produced by textbook publishers and language resource centers, mainly for pedagogical purposes.
2. Technical video prepared by large firms to teach technical and basic economic concepts.
3. Unedited, uncut, individual video recordings taken from television, not intended purely for pedagogical purposes and classroom use.

Because so much has already been written about the first two types, this article will deal with only the third type, because study guides, complete or partial transcripts, and other teaching aids are not available, so the teacher himself or herself will have to play "judge" in deciding *how much* of *what* AFLV are viewed *when*, *how*, and by *whom* (Berwald 1976; Lawrence 1987; Svensson 1985).

Obtaining and Selecting AFLVs

In the United States, as Rogers and Medley (1988) have pointed out, Spanish-language television is widely available throughout the Southwest, New York, and Florida, whereas Canadian French TV stations can easily be received in areas such as upstate New York, New Hampshire, and Vermont, not to mention the Spanish television networks Univisión and Galavisión and the French Antenne 2 that can be received with the help of a satellite dish.

When recording such video materials, however, teachers of French and Spanish need to keep in mind that the language and the sociocultural context may have been influenced and to some degree altered by U.S. and Canadian *linguiculture*. These are valid languages and cultures, but they are not the same as the languages and cultures of the "motherlands," and students must be prepared for the fact that they are dealing with *a* French- or Spanish-speaking culture, one of many.

The Student Audience

Obtaining high-context videotapes is but one of the obstacles, for few language teachers can afford a side trip to the country where the language is spoken. The second obstacle, but far less expensive, is transcoding the French SECAM or German PAL video into the NTSC American and Canadian standard. Even after both obstacles have been successfully overcome, the language teacher still has the choice of selecting and using from among the recorded films, talk shows, nature programs, and the like, the recordings that best suit his or her students' affective-cognitive needs, ages, interests, and styles of learning (Weissenrieder 1987; Wildner-Bassett 1990).

Obviously, students at the elementary and middle school level would be less interested in watching a news program on the German unification issue than students at the secondary and college level. Conversely, a cartoon show will most likely capture the attention and interests of both age groups. This is to say that very often interests and ages of the students alone do not determine the appropriateness and potential usefulness of a video recording. While the content of a video may well be appropriate in complementing the general theme covered in the textbook, it may well be inappropriate and unsuited to the students' overall development. Language teachers must, therefore, base their decisions on child-development knowledge, on language-acquisition processes, on an awareness of student capabilities at any given age, and on student appeal.

Editing for Classroom Use

Other determining factors that have an even greater influence on the maximum impact and success of AFLV in the language classroom are the length, the purpose, and the intended audience of the video. Clearly, a video program that is 30 minutes long or longer will not be used as readily and as often as a weather report or a 5-minute commercial segment. That does not mean the shorter the video length the better its pedagogical potential for classroom use. It merely suggests that the attention span of language learners depends on their age and their linguistic processing abilities, not to mention the content level of the video, the chief cause for both "tune ins" and "tune outs" during the viewing/listening phase.

Assuming that the content is of high interest to students, and that they have the sociolinguistic and sociocultural competence to process that

content, the common consensus among video users today is that programs not exceeding 5 to 10 minutes provide a sufficient foundation for a number of previewing, viewing, and postviewing language and culture activities (Altman 1989; Berwald 1985; Joiner 1990).

Unfortunately, with few exceptions, most authentic videotaped programs are longer than 10 minutes. The question that must be answered then is not so much *when* to stop the video program as it is *how* to divide it into manageable segments. These segments should remain logical in their continuity, without interruptions in the flow of the content, yet still provide a reasonable number of clues for students to speculate, anticipate, and/or predict the continuation or outcome of the program. Since study guides, transcriptions, or other types of teaching aids are not readily available, users of AFLV are called upon to take an active role in selecting, previewing, and dividing the visual and auditory components of the video into self-contained manageable units, in consideration of the course goals and the abilities and proficiency levels of their students (Cummins 1989; Froehlich 1988).

Purpose

Another issue that must be solved before students view AFLVs in the classroom or in the language laboratory is the purpose. *Viewing AFLVs with and for a purpose* not only demands that video users replace the traditional passive viewing/listening on a Friday afternoon with an active one, but that students understand the real purpose of viewing. Knowing *why* we watch becomes as important as *what* we watch, and *how*, *when*, and with *whom* we watch.

Most of the time we watch mainly for three reasons: to be entertained, to be instructed, or to be informed. Obviously, a family that is planning a trip to the beach will not watch an entire news program in order to find out what the weather is going to be over the weekend. They can simply switch to the weather channel with the touch of a button. Similarly, a person not knowing what to cook will not sit in front of the TV for hours until the "Cajun Kitchen" program airs. He or she will turn the TV on when the scheduled time comes and—as would be expected—the person would listen for or write down *only* the "things" concerned with the recipe. Thus, materials, ingredients, preparation, and heating instructions become of paramount importance for the person viewing that

program. The key question is: *how* can the content of the AFLV effectively be organized and sequenced while still reflecting a proficiency orientation?

Organizing and Sequencing AFLVs

Organizing and sequencing unedited AFLVs presented more problems than solutions, for as Omaggio (1986) cautions, such materials are "often random in respect to vocabulary, structure, functions, content, situation, and length" (p. 128).

Although students at the lower levels of proficiency may encounter comprehension difficulties, this should not prevent language teachers from using AFLVs in the beginning of language instruction. It must be said that it is neither the content nor the timing—that is, when the video is viewed during a course regardless of level—that determines the degree of difficulty of a video, but the tasks we ask students to perform based on it. As Rogers and Medley (1988) have argued, "it is the *design and focus of the task*, rather than the language sample itself, that both defines understanding and determines the effectiveness with which the students 'understand' the materials" (p. 470). All students need more than just exposure to genuine video materials, if they are to become *proficient viewers and listeners* of a "distant" language and culture.

Organizing and sequencing AFLVs is a matter of careful articulation into the curriculum. On a practical level, successful articulation is established in two ways: on the *sound* and the *image* level alone or on the combination of the two. This can easily be achieved by first generating a guiding list of the vocabulary, the subfunctions, and the substructures to be used and then by focusing clearly on the images that accompany these features. The illustrations, captions, punch lines, charts, and graphs that appear on the screen are invaluable clues aiding in the comprehension of the message. What the images bring to the comprehension process is self-evident: physical gestures and facial expressions conveying emotional states and nuances such as surprise, happiness, anger, irritation, affection, and approval (Cook et al. 1988; Lonergan 1984). "A picture is worth a thousand words" is an understatement in the context of using AFLVs. Besides making geographical, social, and cultural boundaries less "distant," dynamic high-context images, coupled with the written form,

reinforce the dimension of sound like no other "natural" medium can accomplish.

Once the scope of the vocabulary, subfunctions, and substructures has been identified and classified, progressive authentic tasks need to be found for students to recognize, manipulate, and/or apply their newly acquired knowledge in a variety of natural contexts. Students receive in the process a well-balanced menu of "real life" video text (Block 1986; Joiner 1984; Seelye 1984). The greater the diversity in video selection, the greater the potential for a successful progression of both authentic tasks appropriate to age and culture and cultural, grammatical, communicative, and functional activities at a variety of levels.

Quantity and Diversity

Although quantity in video programs does not guarantee quality of video success, it does, however, offer the springboard necessary for evoking, recycling, and expanding in new contexts a greater corpus of language material and cultural contents/contexts and for stimulating class discussions and activities in the new language. Allowing students to access an increasingly diverse body of video material offers many advantages, the two most important of which are

1. Compartmentalization is kept at a minimum, for students practice using language material in a rich variety of authentic sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts.
2. Students' interests and enthusiasm are revitalized, while their accountability and attention span before, during, and after the viewing/listening phase are maximized.

Exercises and Activities

For AFLVs to be successfully and thoroughly utilized, video exercises and activities need be designed and implemented that are both purposeful and attractive to students' audiovisual senses and viewing interests. It is at this stage that the teacher's theoretical considerations must become the practical applications. Moreover, it is also at this stage, in the video-planning phase, that four of the most frequently asked questions are posed by video users throughout the profession:

1. How can I take the video-based approach to language teaching, develop it through the functionally based approach, and gradually redirect it toward proficiency-oriented video instruction?
2. How can I inspire my students to learn how to watch and listen to AFLVs in order to progress to the next level of culture and language proficiency? (in the sense of ACTFL 1986)
3. What can I do to take my students from the traditional passive viewing through the active and purposeful task-based approach?
4. What kinds of proficiency-directed video exercises and activities are needed?

While the answers to these questions depend largely on the hierarchy of students' abilities and needs as well as on the teacher's approach, methods, and techniques, they determine to a large extent *how much* of *what* video exercises and activities we will choose to use, *when* they will be introduced and practiced for receptive or productive control, in *what* cultural contexts they are embedded, and *how* they are sequenced. As the literature emphasizes, students need to be creative with language, to use various inferencing strategies and cognitive skills, and to be unafraid to take risks in their quest to communicate (Allen 1981; Gaudiani 1981a; Rivers 1983).

It is also part of our job to help students "learn" *how to* capitalize on what they already know about their own native skills and strategies and seek ways for them to correctly employ that knowledge in a new cultural-linguistic framework (Carrell and Eisterhold 1983; Klein 1986; Krashen 1982; Piaget 1952). If we want students to successfully assimilate and/or accommodate the video content, including functions, structures, vocabulary, and cultural assumptions, then creating a nonthreatening, anxiety-free, cooperative viewing/listening environment is the second key to the proposed nourishment phase and ultimately to successful video utilization (Minsky 1982; Omaggio 1986). Within this context, one last provision must be made: sociocultural contents and contexts of AFLVs, video exercises, and skill-building and skill-using activities need to be adapted to the learner's immediate environment and everyday tasks.

If students are to acquire, train, and polish their receptive and productive skills as they ascend from lower to higher levels of proficiency, then they must also be given ample opportunities to engage in assignments

that reflect and embody the same purposes and needs for which AFLVs are really used outside the language classroom.

Practical Applications for AFLVs

The degree of difficulty lies not so much within the content, the design, or the intended application of the video text as it lies within the increasingly diverse body of students and learning styles we are seeing in our classrooms. Because it has been established that different students learn at different rates—and, under different conditions, a different amount of language material—care must be taken to accommodate all those students' needs and levels of ability (Byrnes 1984; Krashen 1980, 1984; Omaggio 1986).

This presupposes that the language teacher must also include in the design of video exercises and activities phases of video instruction that divide the "traditional" class as a whole into smaller groups according to the range of abilities necessary to accomplish the task or exercise, while providing additional individual tasks for stronger students that are more challenging in scope and range than the students' current proficiency level. Such a "wave pattern" approach, i.e., an approach that makes provisions for students to engage in various levels of difficulty, enables the language teacher to individualize instruction while working with students at a variety of ability levels and pace (Gaudiani 1981b; Nerenz and Knop 1982). The ultimate reward: the content of the video segment is divided into its smallest parts, which are greater than the sum of the whole because they can be utilized in other contexts. The following guidelines can freshen the use of video materials in the classroom:

1. *What to show?* Anything and everything that interests and challenges your students' needs and abilities. Do not limit yourself to weather reports and commercials and *do not* ignore your own preferences. The best AFLVs, and the ones you will most enjoy using, will always be those that reflect your interests.
2. *Vary* your video contents, focuses, tasks, exercises, and activities. Remember that although simple repetition is a powerful device, unnecessary and unfounded repetitions can lead to boredom.

3. *Do not overcontrol* the speed, the depth, the amount, or the length of AFLVs. Manipulate the video text wisely, e.g., freezing/holding a frame, pausing, rewinding and repeating a frame or segment, turning down the audio or blackening out the images, and previewing via images or scanning whenever and wherever necessary. Adjust your video objectives to your students' pace of learning and capabilities.
4. *Be alert to patterns* you can exploit, either as elements that enhance your textbook content or as principal subjects.
5. *Do not just line up* tasks and activities, but arrange them in a balanced and functional manner, i.e., create affective, cognitive, semantic, experiential, and psychomotor formats for students to exercise their cognitive and linguistic strategies as well as their processing skills.
6. *Select exercises* that do not compete with the activities, or that provide pertinent information about the activity.
7. *Do not overlook opportunities* to teach cultural awareness and cross-cultural sensitivity whenever and wherever possible. It is easy to fall into the habit of "covering" only the linguistic or functional level of the video content. Deliberatively, go beyond the cultural surface level of food, clothes, and "important" holidays.
8. *Allow plenty of time* for leisurely enjoyment of what students watch. Neither the content nor the activities and follow-up discussions will be much fun if you are constantly racing with the clock.
9. *Watch and know your students.* The more closely you observe the way AFLVs affect the overall language and cultural proficiency of your students, the more easily you will be able to anticipate and predict difficulties and successes.
10. *Have students watch a variety of AFLVs,* thus enabling them to take more than just an authentic cultural trip.
11. *Teach the process* of authentic viewing/listening, i.e., the way a native would watch a program and the amount of information the native would extract from it.
12. *Do not limit AFLVs to "show and tell"* experiences. Rather, create a cooperative environment where students can act and react, identify and evaluate, compare and contract, criticize and

explain cross-cultural values, beliefs, customs, traditions, and aspirations.

13. *Simplify the design and focus of the task*, not the text. At best, well-defined parameters of the viewing/listening task lead to maximum attention and accountability. At worst, viewer confusion is almost sure to result.
14. *Set the parameters* of the viewing/listening task. The more explicit your directions are, the fewer wandering eyes you will see.
15. *Go from global to specific* viewing and listening and from the known to the unknown. Define the degree and the amount of detail to be required.
16. *Have students engage in real-life viewing and listening activities* that allow some of them to list, others to narrate and describe, some to take notes, and others to summarize.
17. *Always check for comprehension* of material and mastery of skills to be sure you have actually gotten the results you wanted. Do not assume, communicate! Remember that levels of viewing/listening control can change as improvements are made.
18. *Experiment, experiment, and never stop experimenting.* Take students' suggestions into account and breathe fresh air into "old and dusty" video materials.

Implementing AFLV in the Language Classroom

It is ironic that in an age shaped by electronic media and computers we still continue to pay so much attention to the language of an authentic video and so little to its message. Obviously, message and content, context and function are not "divorced" from each other just as they are not isolated from the sociocultural framework in which they are embedded. Granted, sometimes concentrating on an isolated language element makes for a stronger understanding than a broader view does. A broad view may contain such a welter of information that the student does not know where and what to look for or listen to first.

When faced with a sociocultural content or message too long or too complex to show compellingly in an overall view, it is advisable to select one or more significant linguicultural features to show or to direct the

students' attention to individual segments, each one of which stands for the whole. The reason for introducing and practicing the video content with the other language elements in an interdependent fashion is to emphasize the principal message of the AFLV and to subordinate any secondary elements that do not contribute greatly to the overall understanding of the message.

Further, AFLVs are high-impact language materials that suggest the content by emphasizing message rather than linguistic or structural elements. Therefore, it is of paramount importance that they be used as constructive building blocks leading to sociocultural lessons. As a rule, AFLVs with distinct messages and contents are the best candidates for cultural treatment.

Conclusion

Making AFLVs user friendly presents both a challenge and an opportunity in the 1990s. A challenge because, unlike passive viewing, active viewing demands a high degree of coordination and articulation between eye-ear-mind and cognitive inferencing skills essential to the language learning process. An opportunity because, if selected carefully and planned and used sensibly, AFLVs can be challenging, entertaining, and fun like no other state-of-the-art teaching tool in the electronic arena. A word of caution: do not let AFLVs totally replace your language textbook or other activities and media pertinent to proficiency learning and teaching. Rather, make the usage of AFLV as a vital—not exclusive—component of your total language curriculum program, goals, and objectives.

Only after having successfully blended, integrated, and consolidated video into the core curriculum and only after students have been given full access to AFLVs enabling them to profit from their content can we begin to recognize the enormous impact AFLV can have on students' language and cultural acquisition processes. The future applications and implications AFLV can and will have in the 1990s for teaching and testing within a true proficiency orientation are only as limited as the user's imagination. The possibilities and the opportunities are within our reach. The choice is ours.

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8
Implementing a Less Commonly Taught Language Program: A Longitudinal Approach

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When the Wake County Public Schools (Raleigh, N.C.) implemented a Japanese language program in the fall of 1982, it began the first one available in North Carolina. The district took numerous steps to make the foreign language offering possible. For example, the magnet school concept had to be instituted. Parental support for the program needed to be elicited. Then, the project called for teachers to be recruited and hired, curriculum to be developed, and classroom materials to be obtained. At the time of its inception, few public school programs in the Japanese language existed in the United States to use as a developmental model.[1] The purpose of this article is to chronicle the creation and evolution over nearly a decade of the Wake County Public Schools Japanese language program.

Creation of Magnet Schools in Wake County

The Wake County School District covers 800 square miles and enrolls over 62,000 students. There are a total of 34 elementary, 13 middle, and 12 high schools that are nonmagnet.

In 1982, the school system instituted a magnet school approach as an option for K–12 education. The district developed the magnet schools primarily to increase student enrollment, and to better the balance of majority/minority students in the underenrolled inner-city schools: the magnet network functioned as a voluntary busing plan. The district instituted 16 elementary schools, 5 middle schools, and 1 high school as magnets.

Of those 22 schools, the administration identified 2 elementary, 1 middle, and 1 high school to offer international strands.[2] A survey circulated early in the spring of 1982 indicated that the Japanese language was a course that parents and students would support. Parents and school administrators believed that a Japanese program would have the potential to help attract students to a magnet school.

A part of the magnet school creation process involved the writing of a program philosophy. (See Appendix 8A.) This philosophy guided the evolution of the international strand magnet schools and the Japanese program.

The North Carolina Japan Center

After formulating philosophy, the school district networked with existing local and national agencies to devise a plan for curricular development and implementation. The Wake County Schools' foreign language specialist contacted the North Carolina Japan Center located on the campus of North Carolina State University. The state legislature established the Center in 1980 to promote trade and understanding between the peoples of North Carolina and Japan. Officials of the Japan Center offered helpful advice concerning other Japanese language programs and provided leads to sources of potential teachers. The presence of a governmental agency dedicated to increasing awareness about Japan and located within the school district lent support and underscored the feeling that Japanese language instruction was important to the Wake County Schools. With the Center's location, and its affiliation with North Carolina State University and its Japanese language program, an additional collaboration developed between the magnet schools and the university that has proven mutually beneficial over the years.

Student Recruitment

Even though in the preliminary survey parents indicated support for the notion of a Japanese language elective, concern lingered regarding the ability of their children to actually learn Japanese. The district's foreign language specialist received inquiries from the parents concerning expectations of student levels of proficiency from kindergarten through high school. Some parents concluded that if the language could not be mastered, perhaps their child should pursue another curricular option.

When school opened in fall of 1982, fewer than 10 students registered for Japanese at the 2 magnet elementaries and at the magnet high school offering the international strand. Nearly all the other foreign languages had strong enrollments.[3] Implementation at the middle school was delayed that first year. Even with the low enrollments, the school system stood by its commitment to offer Japanese.

Over the next few years, the district made several adjustments to the program. For example, the district dropped Japanese in 1985 at one elementary magnet that could not sustain enrollment. During the 1989–90 school year, however, the district reinstated the option. Also, a middle school Japanese program began in 1986. This completed the K–12 strand of Japanese.

Teacher Recruitment

Over the years, the school system experienced numerous staffing patterns for Japanese teachers. Several matters required consideration. First, the district desired someone proficient in the language. Also, the successful teacher candidate needed to understand the ways that children and adolescents learn languages and the methodologies appropriate for a proficiency-based language course of study. Additionally, the teacher had to be able to work in an American educational setting.

The district encountered a variety of difficulties in recruiting and hiring Japanese teachers. Wake County Schools discovered that some native speakers without teacher training lacked the understanding of second language acquisition and teaching methodologies. American teachers who had studied some Japanese often were not proficient enough in the language to teach it.

During the first year of program implementation, a private commercial language company located in Raleigh provided the instructor for the

high school and for one of the elementary schools. The other elementary school hired a native speaker who had been an English as a Second Language (ESL) aide in the district.

Staffing challenges did not end after the first year. Teacher certification was and continues to be a hurdle. No certification exists in North Carolina for Japanese. Because certification is, among other things, a payment plan, personnel administrators yearly must make special arrangements for the Japanese instructors. Their salaries and benefits are not the same as those of certified staff.[4]

In 1985, the district employed at the high school a teacher certified in English but competent in Japanese. Enrollment stabilized, and since 1987, the number of students in the high school program grew. The district's K–12 foreign language specialist attributes this to the continuity and quality of the instructor.

K-12 Japanese: Nine Years after Implementation

Since the program's inception, the Wake County Schools continue to offer Japanese as an elective at 2 magnet elementary schools, 1 magnet middle school, and 1 magnet high school. The following is a description of the curriculum at the three levels.

Elementary School Program Description

At each elementary school, approximately 40 students have elected to study Japanese.[5] One native speaker teaches at each school.

The classes meet Monday through Thursday for 45 minutes each. The foreign language teachers have their own classrooms.

As with many of the less commonly taught languages, finding materials that are age-appropriate has been a challenge. The teachers resorted to authentic texts, which they modified for the children. Trips to Japan by the teachers resulted in the acquiring of a variety of books, flash cards, and songs that appeal to the youngsters. For example, the children use an authentic workbook for learning the kana characters.

The teachers found other sources of books and materials. For example, they ordered some children's Japanese texts from publishing companies in Brazil and Australia. Also, the teachers incorporate ESL materials into the curriculum.

Commitment to the program and budgetary constraints combine to pose scheduling dilemmas. The ideal situation would allow for a student to be scheduled with others of a similar age and foreign language linguistic proficiency. Budgetary realities place together students of widely varied cognitive, developmental, and linguistic levels.

The school system created three language ability levels: beginner, intermediate, and advanced. At one of the elementary Japanese magnets, the teacher has four classes. One class has 11 beginners ranging from kindergarten to the second grade. Another group of 9 beginners has third through fifth graders.[6] A third class consists of 6 students (first and second graders) that have been taking Japanese for two or three years. The teacher's fourth class combined intermediate and advanced students. In that group, 5 students have studied Japanese for two years, 5 for four years, and 1 for five years. Individualization of instruction is a requirement.

After five years in the program, the children have been exposed to listening, speaking, reading, and writing in Japanese. Every effort is made to keep instruction in the target language. Due to the constant search for classroom materials and the high degree of individualization necessary, the curriculum is flexible, especially during the third, fourth, and fifth years. Throughout the first year, for example, the students learn commands, question words, and a variety of nouns. The nouns are ones meaningful to children, such as names of animals, family members, places, foods, and colors and school vocabulary. The second year of Japanese FLES is devoted to adjectives and verbs. The children study the present progressive, present, and past tenses. The third, fourth, and fifth years expand on grammar and vocabulary. Speaking and listening continue to be emphasized; instruction includes reading and writing as well.

The teachers integrate culture weekly at all levels. For example, a lesson centered on animals allows the children to make their own by learning about origami, the art of paper folding. Learning greetings is combined with when and how to bow. Also weekly, the children learn two new hiragana letters.

The teachers evaluate student progress both formally and informally, in age-appropriate ways. They assess listening, speaking, reading, and writing on the basis of the behavioral objectives of their lessons. For example, while learning action verbs with an emphasis on listening and

speaking, one evaluation technique involves the children in "Simon Says." The children view the activity as a game, and the teacher is able to judge comprehension in a nonthreatening manner. Where the lesson or unit objective is to teach reading or writing, an example of an appropriate evaluation format is to have the children matching pictures to written sentences describing those pictures.

Middle School and High School

The district offers Japanese at 1 magnet middle school. The teacher must provide instruction for sixth graders who have had from zero to six years of exposure to the language. Seventh and eighth graders also have the option of beginning and continuing Japanese. The middle school offers two classes of 45 minutes daily. Enrollments are of heterogeneous abilities and ages. This makes instruction problematic for the teacher. As at the elementaries, the middle school Japanese teacher adapts authentic materials or creates his or her own.

At the time of this article, the magnet high school matriculated 2,154 students. The school has made available since its inception seven languages: Spanish, French, German, Russian, Latin, Chinese, and Japanese. The school offers four levels of Japanese, and in the past few years the program has attracted approximately 50 students per year.

Finding appropriate teaching materials has been a problem since the inception of the program. When surveyed, neither the teachers nor the students expressed satisfaction with the textbooks.[7] One bright light concerning materials is a word-processing program that writes hiragana characters. The computer program has been very useful for making worksheets and other types of handouts.

Program Evaluation

The Japanese language program has become institutionalized and accepted as a regular language course. Enrollments have risen at all levels so that underenrollment and consequent disestablishment of the program no longer appear critical. The high school offers four levels of Japanese. Students with advanced ability enroll in Japanese classes at North Carolina State University. At the elementary level, the reintroduction of

Japanese at the second magnet school demonstrates the district's commitment to the program.

No formal instrument is used to evaluate yearly the elective Japanese language offerings in Wake County. The K–12 foreign language program specialist does a narrative report to the superintendents and the school board based on interviews with the school principals, teachers, and parents of the students. The following is a synthesis of positive features as well as recommendations for program improvement.

When interviewed, all the teachers agreed that the strength of the program can be attributed to the students. Based on the written program goals and objectives, the teachers reported that the students were indeed acquiring the language as well as meeting the expectations of the teacher and the program.

Another affirmative component to the program is that the parents of the Japanese language students formed an advocate group. The parents have been a positive force, supporting the teachers and administrators on instructional issues such as scheduling and materials acquisition.

Still another positive step is the planned transfer of a Saturday school for Japanese children who are dependents of Japanese nationals in Raleigh from a nonmagnet school to one of the international strand elementary magnets. The Saturday program is an effort to supplement the studies of Japanese children in the national Japanese curriculum while they attend American schools in Raleigh. This project will provide added interest in the Japanese language program and will offer extra authentic materials for use in the Japanese language program. Administrators hope this undertaking will enhance and strengthen the curriculum and provide further collaborative opportunities.

When discussing suggestions for program improvement, all the Japanese teachers subscribed to the following three recommendations. The first was that the state needs a teaching certificate for less commonly taught languages. The noncertified Japanese teachers maintained that they want to teach, but they also want all the rights and privileges that a certificate grants. For example, one such privilege is staff development. Although they now receive notification of inservice offerings, they are not eligible to receive credit for participating.

Next, the teachers expressed a desire for a more coordinated effort for networking. Not having a certificate as the other teachers in the

schools do, and there being no other Japanese K–12 colleagues in the state, they described a feeling of being different and isolated. They appreciated when the district provided occasions to network among themselves and with other foreign language teachers, and they look forward to more in the future. They wish to learn more about methodologies that encourage proficiency, as well as other pedagogical issues.

Finally, all concurred that improved articulation is necessary. Presently, the teachers at the elementary school find it a disadvantage to deal with classes of multiple ages and abilities. Providing appropriate and varied lessons from one year to the next has been demanding. Also, the teachers feel that the middle school curriculum is too repetitious of the elementary school's. The teachers would like the opportunity to revise and coordinate the curriculum with their counterparts in the district. The instructors contend that such an effort would afford the students a smoother transition from one grade level to the next.

Recommendations on Starting a Japanese Language Program

Beginning a Japanese language program or a program in any of the less commonly taught languages is a long-term commitment. As with any educational program, a written philosophy is critical; it becomes the focus for developing the program.

Networking is also very important. It is helpful to discover what other districts have accomplished, and what human and material resources exist before curricular decisions are made.

Commitment must be strong not only from the central administration of the school district, but also from the individual schools and the community. Sufficient time and resources should be pledged to allow the program to develop and grow.

A nontraditional language program requires promotion over a period of years until it is institutionalized. Teachers of other foreign languages need to be assured that the study of Japanese helps advance all foreign languages and should not detract from their enrollments.

Languages such as Japanese must be demystified. This calls for demonstrating to American students that they are capable of learning a nonwestern language. Convincing parents and students during the first year of implementation can be critical. After the first year, though, the

students in the program can be the best recruiters. Giving the students the opportunity to exhibit what they have learned works well in persuading prospective parents and students.

Conclusion

Implementing a less commonly taught language program requires a firm commitment on the part of a school district and community. The Wake County School District experienced initial obstacles in staffing, student recruitment, and obtaining classroom materials. These issues continue to create challenges, yet administrators and teachers, as well as members of the community, are certain that these matters are resolvable. They are convinced that current economic conditions and political realities mandate offering Japanese on a K–12 basis.

Notes

1. In the List of Resources (Appendix 8B), the reader will find limited sources to consult. More must be written to create a body of information on K–12 programs and the teaching of less commonly taught languages. To assist curriculum planners, the *Newsletter of the Japanese Language Teachers Network* provides a national list of schools with programs as well as other valuable information.
2. The elective language options at the two elementary and one middle schools are French, Spanish, German, Chinese, and Japanese. The elementaries and middle schools continue with these languages. The high school began with French, German, Spanish, Latin, Russian, Chinese, and Japanese. Italian was added in 1988.
3. Russian and Chinese experienced similar enrollment troubles the first year.
4. The school district is working with the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction to certify the Japanese instructors in other teaching areas.
5. Every year the enrollment figures have increased.
6. This class has a native speaker aide who volunteers three days a week, assisting with the individualized instruction.
7. At the time of this article, they used college texts.

Appendix 8A:
Wake County Foreign Language Program Philosophy
1982

1. Foreign language instruction in the United States must change to meet the challenge of an increasingly international future.
2. Students can be prepared to meet this challenge through a restructured foreign language program that recognizes the importance of speaking, and that organizes its curricula to reflect this emphasis.
3. Foreign language ability is going to be essential in all walks of life, and therefore should not be an elitist course of study.
4. Language is the most culture-revealing expression of a people or a civilization. Therefore, language cannot be taught without teaching the culture if our goal is meaningful communication.
5. Successful foreign language instruction is a useful and effective tool in producing responsible, thinking citizens.
6. Effective foreign language study should be made available to every student in the Wake County Public School System. Grades K–12.
7. Students should be encouraged and given incentives to participate in foreign language instruction at every opportunity in the school system and in the community.
8. In the interest of accomplishing these goals cost-effectively, the system should take advantage of community resources that are available to enhance and support the system's own foreign language program.

Appendix 8B
Resources

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MEETING THE CALL FOR EXCELLENCE IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ed. Westphal (1985)

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NEW FRONTIERS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION ed. Conner (1980)

TEACHING THE BASICS IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ed. Benseler (1979)

TEACHING FOR TOMORROW IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ed. Baker (1978)

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THE CULTURE REVOLUTION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING ed. Lafayette (1975)

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